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ABSTRACT

Focusing on the role of supervisors, this study looked at factors affecting the teaching and learning process in Nepalese schools. A brief review of the educational reform effort in Nepal and of the National Education System Plan leads to a look at current conditions in education, drawing from questionnaire results and observations from schools in three districts. This section deals with such features as class size and attendance, teacher competency, and the utilization of teaching materials. The next section describes in detail the organization of educational administration and supervision and the specific role of each component. It is followed by an evaluation of Nepalese administration and supervision. The study concludes with a number of proposals to improve the effectiveness of supervision, and of educational efforts generally, in Nepal. The main recommendations of the study include the following: (1) Teachers should be incorporated into the civil service structure, (2) the determination of teacher salary should rest on qualifications, not on the grade level taught, (3) greater emphasis should be put on preservice rather than inservice teacher training, (4) there should be a single level of district supervisor responsible for each district's schools, and (5) the position of supervisor ought to be made less onerous. (Author/JM)

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IIEP research report : (38)

The rôle of supervision in
improving the teaching/
learning process in Nepal

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NEPALBasic Data (1977)

(Exchange rate US\$ 1.00 = 11.9 (Nepalese rupees))

General

Area	141,000 km ²
Population	13.3 million
Growth rate	2.2% p.a.
G.N.P. (US\$)	1450 million
Per Capita Income (US\$)	110
Growth rate	2.4% p.a.
Literacy rate (15+ age group)	19% (1975)

Education

Enrolment in primary schools (Grades 1-3)	769,000
- as % of 6-8 age group	71% (gross)
Enrolment in secondary schools (Grades 4-10)	309,000
- as % of 9-15 age group	14% (gross)
Enrolment in Tribhuvan University	25,000
Total expenditure of Ministry of Education (rupees)	277.7 million
- as % of Government's Budget	9%
- as % of G.N.P.	1.6%

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The present study arose from a proposal made by the Ministry of Education of His Majesty's Government of Nepal to the IIEP for a joint research project into factors affecting the teaching/learning process in Nepalese schools, with particular reference to the rôle of supervisors, and drawing on the experience of three selected districts to illustrate the findings. The fieldwork in the three districts was carried out jointly by a Ministry team and an IIEP consultant during the period January-March, 1980, and the draft of the resulting study was finalised in June, 1980¹. This introduction sets out the objectives, structure, methodology and data base of the study, together with a note on terminology used in Nepal, and background information on the districts studied, which serves to illustrate the difficult operating conditions for most supervisory work in Nepal.

(a) Objectives

The objective of the study was initially established as the evaluation of the rôle of supervision services² in bringing about improvements in the teaching/learning process in the recently reformed Nepalese educational system. During the fieldwork in Nepal which forms the basis of this report, it became clear that the evaluation would be largely critical - the supervision service is not working in the manner intended - and accordingly the focus of the research was slightly altered to delve more deeply into the reasons for this situation and to produce proposals for remedial action.

During the period 1971-76 a reform of the Nepalese educational system was implemented under the heading of the National Education System Plan. This is discussed in more detail in later sections, but among the goals of the reform were educational expansion, a new character for education and improved quality. While there has been a substantial achievement in expanding educational enrolments, and revised goals for the

1. The report's findings and recommendations relate to the situation prevailing when the field research was carried out. The changes in the Education Regulations introduced in September 1980, though relevant to the subject of the report, have therefore not been treated in the text, but are described briefly in the Appendix.
2. "Supervision" in Nepal is taken to cover both the supervisory and inspection activities which are differentiated in many countries, i.e. it includes both the oversight of school administrative practices and efforts to improve the performance of teachers and the quality of schooling provided.

educational system have been set, it is much more open to question whether the teaching/learning process has improved. Indeed, one common indicator, the pupil-teacher ratio, showed substantial worsening at all levels of education during the 1973-78 period. Furthermore, the intended shape of the educational pyramid has not been achieved, an unduly high proportion of those in higher education continue to study the humanities and kindred subjects, vocational studies at the secondary level have not been implemented as intended, and the proportion of primary teachers who have been trained has barely increased.

Thus there are good grounds for investigating the impediments to the improvement of the teaching/learning process, and it is in this context that the effectiveness of supervision is of concern. The study aims to describe the existing system of supervision, and the way in which it works in practice, together with an exposition of the shortcomings of the present situation, and the reasons for these shortcomings, followed by a set of proposals for the improvement of supervision. An attempt will be made to draw lessons applicable to other countries as well.

(b) Structure

The study sets out the context in which the research has taken place, then goes on to review the findings of the research, and is completed by a discussion of measures to be taken.

Following this introduction, the study begins with a brief review of the recent educational progress of Nepal, paying attention to the motivation and impact of the reform effort contained in the National Education System Plan 1971-76, and such special features of Nepalese educational policy as the importance given to the rôle of the local community in promoting education, methods of educational financing and educational provision for remote areas. Some references are made to the three districts in which the research was carried out.

There is then a section describing the existing conditions of the teaching/learning process, dealing with such features as class size and attendance, the capacity of the teachers, the utilisation of teaching materials, and the deficiencies of school facilities. This section draws heavily on the analysis of data collected from three different districts of Nepal, to which further reference is made below.

The existing organisation of educational administration and supervision is described in detail, from the national level down to the headmasters and school co-operation committees. The specific rôle of each component is discussed. Essentially this section is a description of the system as it is meant to operate. Particular attention is paid to the intended duties of supervisors and their relations with the district administration and the schools.

This description of the conception of the system is followed by an evaluation of its functioning, in particular as observed in the three districts from which educational data were collected. The evaluation attempts to suggest some of the reasons behind the shortcomings in performance which are observed.

Following this a number of proposals to improve the effectiveness of supervision are set out.

The study concludes with a review of its findings and recommendations, together with an attempt to indicate some aspects of Nepalese experience which have relevance for other countries.

(c) Methodology

Following initial consultations at the national level, the main body of the research work was undertaken through field enquiries in the three districts selected, with the intention of ascertaining the rôles and views of the different actors in the process of educational supervision. For this purpose a set of questionnaires was prepared, to be administered to respondents in each of the districts.

These were :

- (i) Headmaster questionnaire, for each school visited.
- (ii) Teacher questionnaire, one or two administered in each school visited.
- (iii) School co-operation committee questionnaire, to be completed by one member of the committee, usually the chairman, in each school visited.
- (iv) Supervisor questionnaire, to be completed by as many of the supervisors as could be contacted in each of the three districts.
- (v) Classroom observation form, one for each school visited, to record the teaching/learning conditions.¹

1. The texts of these questionnaires are contained in the annex to the study.,

In addition, at the district level the annual work plans and diaries of the supervisors were examined, together with examples of the forms they are required to complete in conjunction with their visits to schools. At the national level the curricula for past supervisory training courses were studied, as were the public service regulations for supervisors and other government officials.

The data collected through the various questionnaires referred to above were tabulated and analyzed to form the basis for evaluating the existing performance of supervision at the district level. In conjunction with the other district and national level sources mentioned these provided the information inputs for the study.

(d) Data base

The three districts in which information was collected on which to base the analysis and findings of the study were Kapilvastu in the terai or lowlands, Gulmi in the hill area, and Rasuwa, a mountain district classified as a remote area¹. These disparate districts were selected to provide a representative cross-section of conditions in Nepal, other than in Kathmandu and the few other urban centres.

In Kapilvastu, because of the relative ease of access, the schools visited were widely scattered throughout the district, while in Gulmi the constraints of time and difficult communications meant that most of the schools visited were those more accessible from the district headquarters, as that the sample is less than completely representative in this respect. Since, as indicated below, the visit to Rasuwa was made without advance preparation, and a number of the schools were closed for various reasons, only a few could be observed in action, and the information collected can be considered as no more than indicative. A total of thirty schools provided information in Kapilvastu, eighteen in Gulmi, and five in Rasuwa.

Apart from the data collected at the district level, the study also made use of information provided by the Western Regional Directorate of

1. The mountain district originally selected, Mustang, could not be visited at the last moment due to prolonged bad weather. Rasuwa was therefore a late substitute with no advance preparation, so that the fieldwork undertaken in this instance was necessarily more cursory than in the other districts.

Education, and by the Ministry of Education, the Curriculum, Textbook and Supervision Development Centre, and the Institute of Education at the national level, not to mention the findings of earlier studies.

(e) A note on terminology

The concepts of inspection and supervision are normally clearly distinguished in educational systems, and typically refer to distinct rôles carried out by separate officials. Traditionally the inspector's task was mainly to evaluate the performance of teachers, with a view to assessing their efficiency and suitability for promotion, so that he was in a superior/subordinate relationship to the teachers. But more recently in many countries this aspect of the inspectorial task has been diminished in favour of an emphasis on his rôle as a channel of innovation and improvement in the performance of teachers in the classroom, with a view to increasing the pedagogical effectiveness of the school, and hence the quality of the education provided. On the other hand school supervision usually refers to the whole range of activities involved in overseeing the routine operation and maintenance of the school, e.g. maintenance of the physical facilities, control of supplies, checking of the keeping of accounts, and possibly the payment of salaries.

In Nepal the local supervisors are supposed to carry out both of these rôles, as well as such other tasks as may be required of them by the local educational administration, so that they cannot be described as either inspectors or supervisors in the above senses of the terms, but only as a combination of both, and then something else besides. The primary concern of the study will be to focus on the rôle of the Nepalese supervisor as it is evolving in terms of his contribution to improvements in teaching and learning in the schools for which he is responsible.

(d) The fieldwork areas

As was indicated above, three districts were selected to provide data for the study, being representative of the situation in each of the three physical regions of the country - terai, hill and mountain. The geographical and socio-economic characteristics of each of these districts are described in turn below, while the path of their recent educational development will be discussed in a subsequent chapter. These types of information illustrate the varying conditions within which the supervision system has to operate.

(1) Kapilvastu: The district borders on India and shares many of the characteristics of the North Indian plain. It is essentially flat or gently undulating, the land surface rising very gradually towards the northern edge of the district, where the abrupt upthrust of the hill areas forms the boundary. The 1544 sq. kms. of the district is estimated to support a population of about 250,000 in 1980, which is growing due to natural increase and also immigration, both from the hill area to the north and from India. In general this population is concentrated in nuclear villages. At present some 50 per cent of the land area is cultivated, but this is increasing as further population inflows lead to clearing the remaining forest for fresh settlement and cultivation. Although the district has numerous rivers meandering across it, there is a seasonal shortage of water, and a system of irrigation canals is being constructed to permit more intensive cultivation, in particular double-cropping.

Agriculture is the principal economic activity of the district, the main crops being rice, sugar-cane, wheat, maize, potatoes and oilseeds. There is also significant production of fruit, in particular mangoes, and varied livestock farming. As might be expected, the industries of the area are mainly concerned with the processing of the various agricultural products, and sawmilling, but most industrial establishments are small.

By Nepalese standards the district is well provided with roads, though only a few are surfaced and hence usable during the wet season, when unbridged rivers become another barrier to communication. The principal local means of transport is the bullock cart, for both goods and passengers.

In many respects, the district looks more towards India than to the rest of Nepal. It receives electricity from India and there is much trade in both directions. Family links across the border are frequent and it is a common practice for local children to go to school in neighbouring Indian towns, where the period of free education is longer than in Nepal, and facilities are generally believed to be better. It is notable that although the district headquarters, Taulihawa, is at the centre of a network of roads, the only all-weather route is that to the Indian border ten kilometers to the South.

(11) Gulmi: Gulmi district lies within the hill belt of the Western Region of Nepal, at altitudes of between 600 and 3,000 metres. But the dominant physical characteristic of the district is its very broken relief,

with deeply incised river valleys winding between steep-sided ridges. Because of this relief there are no roads and the only means of communication are footpaths, most goods being carried on the backs of porters. In many cases the paths are too steep or too narrow to permit the use of draught animals. The difference in altitude between valley floors and the neighbouring ridges is often up to 1,000 metres.

In these physical circumstances it is somewhat surprising to find that the district's area of 1,245 sq. kms. contains a population estimated at some 270,000 in 1980 (1971 census, 227,000) despite a tradition of out-migration to the terai. Moreover, most of this population is scattered throughout the area in small settlements of a few houses or isolated farms, there being little concentration of population into recognizable towns. However, only 14 per cent of the land area is cultivable, much of the rest consisting of steep slopes which are being progressively deforested due to the rising demand for fuel wood, leading to serious problems of soil erosion.

The principal form of economic activity is subsistence agriculture, mainly for the production of cereals, together with seasonal employment as porters or seasonal migration in search of work elsewhere. Even so, the area remains one of food deficit, unable to be self-supporting. Unfortunately the constraints created by the rugged relief and lack of communications make it difficult to envisage the establishment of other forms of economic activity on a significant scale, at least not until the productivity of agriculture has been substantially improved. Such local resources as slate cannot be exploited effectively until a road link to the outside world has been established.

(iii) Rasuwa: Rasuwa is one of the mountain districts of Nepal, containing part of the main range of the Himalayas and bordering on the Tibetan province of China. It is directly north of Kathmandu and indeed relatively accessible, with an all-weather road reaching the town of Trisuli Bazaar 6 kms. from the Southern border of the district, and a jeepable track from there to the village of Betrawati on the district border. This relative accessibility has undoubtedly facilitated the development of tourism in the area, which is one of the main economic activities.

The range of altitude within the district is from 600 metres in the Trisuli river valley at Betrawati to peaks of over 7,000 metres, the district

headquarters, Dhunche, being located some 2,000 metres above sea level. The district is bisected by the deep Bhote-Krisuli valley, whose waters rise within Tibet, and the mountains rise steeply to 3,500 metres or more on either side of this, with various side valleys, some containing hot springs, lakes and glaciers, complicating the relief. Within the district, means of communication are limited to footpaths, involving frequent climbs above 3,500 metres or descents to 1,500 metres or less to cross the central valley. During the winter most ridges are snow-covered, further complicating communication, while in the summer the main rivers become impassable due to the monsoon.

As might be expected in such conditions, population is generally sparse, the district being estimated to contain no more than 20,000 inhabitants within its 1,265 sq. kms. in 1980. The pattern of population settlement is somewhat more nucleated than that in the hills, the typical village having 15 households or more. The great majority of the people are Tamangs, akin to Tibetans, and speaking a related language which is very different from Nepali.

Agriculture is the main economic activity, but less than 2 per cent of the land area is cultivated, so that holdings are mostly very small and extreme poverty is typical. Cereals are the main crops grown, but in all cases the district has to import part of its needs. The limited availability of cultivable land had led to greater attention to the keeping of livestock, and in this connection two small factories for butter and cheese production have been established. An attempt has also been made to develop handicraft production, in particular textiles, making use of local raw materials. Finally tourism is a locally important activity, this being the nearest trekking area to Kathmandu, with access to lakes, glaciers, mountains and monasteries, and mountaineering expeditions providing intermittent employment to significant numbers of porters.

The dominant impression in this district, as in Gulmi, is of the strong impact which difficult natural conditions have on every type of activity. This physical dimension must be taken into close consideration in any attempt to appraise the efficiency of provision of any service.

CHAPTER II

EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN NEPAL

In this chapter a broad survey of the recent development of education in Nepal is provided, together with reference data on the three districts studied.

(a) A brief background to the development of education

There is a long history of interest in education in Nepal in connection with the development of the Hindu and Buddhist religions, but the introduction of Western education is a relatively recent phenomenon.

The first contact with Western education was in 1853 when small informal classes were set up for the close relatives of the ruling Ranas. These informal classes were institutionalised 30 years later as Durbar School, but the main aim of education was to maintain the Rana ascendancy, and schooling was therefore restricted to members of the ruling clan and associated families. On the overthrow of the Ranas in 1951, Nepal had 11 secondary schools with Tri-Chandra College the only source of higher education. At the time, only some 8,500 children were in primary schools, 1,600 in secondary and 250 in higher education. It was estimated that only one per cent of the adults were literate. Communities and private persons in response to the large social demand then began to establish new schools throughout the country, which were financed largely by fees, local community participation and private funding. His Majesty's Government of Nepal supported these efforts by giving lump sum grants to schools according to their reported enrolments, but little attempt was made to influence the distribution of education among the various classes of the population or to improve its quality.

It is then in a period of only just over 20 years that the education system has moved from one catering for a limited elite urban group drawn from a privileged socio-economic stratum to one attempting to meet the needs of an entire country of diverse people, the majority of whom live in rural areas. However the educational system prevailing in Nepal at that time was extremely academic in nature and had an excessive elitist bias. Such an academic form of education over-emphasized theoretical learning at the cost of practical skills, and slowly led to a situation in the country of a problem of educated unemployment on the one hand and a dearth of skilled manpower on the other. So a well planned national system of

Education that would produce enlightened, loyal and productive citizens was urgently called for. As such, the government designed and implemented (starting in 1971) its own education system, the National Education System Plan, which established for the first time a uniform system of education over the whole country.

(b) The Motives and impact of the National Education System Plan (NESP)

The NESP was conceived as a far-reaching reform of the entire educational system, to take place over a period of five years, 1971-76. It was carried out through a succession of annual programmes, implementing it in designated districts of the country. The novelty of the reform lay in the extent of government involvement in education which it initiated, while endeavouring to retain the degree of community participation which already existed. However, since the government's involvement manifested itself to the community most clearly in the increased regulatory activities associated with the introduction of administrative and supervisory activities at the local level, there has been a discernible decline in community support for education, revealed in the attitude that since the government has taken over responsibility for the schools, it alone should be responsible for their functioning. Thus a current preoccupation of the government is with finding ways to reactivate community interest in and support for their local schools, but as will be seen from the succeeding chapters, the measures taken so far have yet to yield the results desired.

The plan was the outcome of the growing national concern to make education responsive to the developmental needs of the country. Development of citizenship qualities, inculcation of attitudes of moral integrity, habits of work, self-reliance, creativity, scientific approach among the students, and promotion of the national language, literature and arts were the major objectives of the plan. The plan stressed the need to expand access of the people to education. It provided for balanced development of primary, secondary and higher education.

The implementation of the National Education System Plan brought tremendous changes and progress in the educational field both quantitatively and qualitatively, quantitative in the sense that school enrolment at the primary, lower secondary and secondary levels increased dramatically to the present enrolment ratios of 87.6 per cent, 24.5 per cent and 13.3 per cent of the respective age groups, along with an increase in the numbers of

teachers to 26,384, 10,536 and 4,265 respectively and schools to 9,886, 3,061 and 644 respectively, at the primary, lower secondary and secondary level in 1979¹. Besides this, by introducing innovation in specific curricula, education instructional materials, teachers' training programmes and supervision and evaluation systems, further qualitative development was also sought in the educational system.

NESP has stressed greatly the task of building the technical cadres to carry out modernisation relevant to the country's situation. With the inception of the plan, technical institutes producing middle and lower level technicians for agriculture, medicine, engineering and forestry were organised under Tribhuvan University.

An overall assessment of NESP in terms of its targets shows that a significant impact has been made already and more may be anticipated in the future, though due to limited budgetary resources and bottlenecks in the machinery of implementation, expectations have not always been fully realised. The following sections set out the structure and growth of the system under NESP.

(c) The structure of the educational system under NESP

The educational structure under NESP is as follows:

First level-primary education² - classes I to III from 6 to 8 years of age. The main aim of this level is to impart literacy.

Second level - lower secondary education - classes IV to VII from 9 to 12 years of age. The aim of this level is character-building through the cultivation of loyalty to King and country and the initiation of pre-vocational education.

Secondary education - classes VIII to X from 13 to 15 years of age, with the aim of creating useful citizens by laying special stress on vocational training.

Third level - higher education.

(a) Certificate level - two years' duration after the completion of secondary education, with the aim of producing basic manpower.

(b) Diploma level - two years' duration after the successful completion of the certificate level, with the intention of satisfying needs for middle-level manpower. (In future the diploma level is to be known as the bachelor's degree level).

1. For a more detailed account of progress under NESP, see section (d).

2. Recently, the three years of primary education has been extended to five years in some districts. It is likely that the government will initiate a similar change in the remaining districts.

(c) Degree level - three years' duration after the successful completion of the diploma level, with the aim of producing high-level manpower. (In future this will be known as the master's degree level).

(d) Research level - two to four years' duration after the completion of the degree level, with the intention of providing specialized manpower.

This structure is shown in diagrammatic form in the annex.

(d) The growth of education under NESP

The quantitative growth in enrolments, students and teachers at all levels of the school system during the period since 1973, when the NESP began to be widely implemented, is shown in the following Tables. The achievement has been an impressive one, so that by 1979 the primary enrolment was equivalent to 87.6 per cent of the 6-8 age group.

But the Tables also bring out some of the continuing weaknesses of the system, in particular the failure to achieve any noticeable increase in the low proportion of trained teachers at the primary level, together with only limited progress in this respect at the lower secondary level. By contrast a considerable improvement in the ratio of trained teachers has been achieved in secondary schools.

With respect to pupil/teacher ratios, progress has been mixed, with a slight increase at the secondary level, a significant decrease at the lower secondary level, and a considerable increase at the primary level, though from an unduly low base. Thus the overall picture in this respect is now quite creditable by international standards, though it has to be recognized that these national averages conceal significant rural/urban disparities, a function of the scattered population in many rural areas and the drift of people to the towns.

The average size of schools has also altered appreciably during the period, with the overall pattern being similar to that of pupil/teacher ratios, viz. considerable growth at the primary level, a significant decline in the average size of lower secondary schools, and an appreciable increase in secondary institutions.

In general it may be observed that under the NESP there has been established a more orderly system, with the size of institutions increasing at successive levels, while in contrast pupil/teacher ratios decline in succeeding levels. But the dearth of trained primary teachers continues to be a major weakness in the development of the national system.

Table 1. Number and average enrolment of schools

Year	Primary		Lower secondary		Secondary	
	Number of schools	Average enrolment per school	Number of schools	Average enrolment per school	Number of schools	Average enrolment per school
1973	7 296	41.3	1 062	148.3	485	120.6
1979	9 886	102.4	3 061	112.0	644	164.8

Source: Nepal, Ministry of Education, Educational Statistics Report, Kathmandu 1980.

Table 2. Enrolments and pupil/teacher ratios

Year	Primary		Lower secondary		Secondary	
	Total enrolment	Pupil/teacher ratio	Total enrolment	Pupil/teacher ratio	Total enrolment	Pupil/teacher ratio
1973	301 439	15.0	157 509	43.9	58 484	18.6
1979	1 012 030	38.4	342 929	32.5	106 109	24.9

Source: Nepal, Ministry of Education, Educational Statistics Report, Kathmandu 1980.

Table 3. Numbers and training of teachers

Year	Primary		Lower secondary		Secondary	
	Total	Percentage trained	Total	Percentage trained	Total	Percentage trained
1973	20 084	35.3	3 586	26.6	3 148	29.9
1979	26 384	36.9	10 539	39.4	4 265	63.0

Source: Nepal, Ministry of Education, Educational Statistics Report, Kathmandu 1980.

(e) Government policies with regard to the finance of education

Until the introduction of the National Education System Plan in 1971, financing of education in Nepal was largely characterized by the small involvement on the part of His Majesty's Government and was mainly the responsibility of local communities. During the period 1967/68 to 1970/71 the income of primary schools was made up of 46 per cent coming from government and 54 per cent from the local communities. In secondary education these proportions averaged 22 per cent and 78 per cent for government and local contributions respectively. In each case, the government's contribution was intended to cover part of the teachers' salaries only, whereas the local communities had to finance the remainder of these salaries, other recurrent expenses, and the capital cost of the buildings. As a result the provision of educational facilities depended upon the financial capabilities of the local communities.

With the country-wide implementation of NESP in education, the financial involvement of His Majesty's Government in education increased considerably in order to fulfill the task of implementing various programmes in conformity with national development plans for the purpose of producing the skilled manpower the country needed. The policy of the government as stated in the NESP is to enlist local co-operation and encourage raising of local resources to meet both capital and recurrent expenditure, and for government assistance to be provided only in the form of financial aid to meet teachers' salaries and to fully subsidize higher level technical education. In accordance with these principles His Majesty's Government adopted a new policy of financing education which is as follows:

1. Apart from some remote areas (18 districts), the government pays 100 per cent of teachers' salaries at the primary level, 75 per cent and 50 per cent at lower secondary and secondary level respectively. For the remote areas, the government pays the entire recurrent cost of primary education, and also 100 per cent of teachers' salaries at lower secondary and secondary levels. In higher education, the government fully subsidizes technical and general education except for income obtained from nominal tuition fees, donations and other sources. It is the government's policy, with respect to capital costs for school buildings that, as in the past, these will be met by local communities, who will also provide the necessary labour..

2. The government has fixed the salary scales of the teachers at each level of the educational system and laid down the minimum qualifications required to teach at that level.

This policy of the government with regard to the financing of education has resulted in a steadily increasing educational expenditure, as shown in the following Table.

Table 4. Expenditure on education by the Ministry of Education (in thousands of Nepalese rupees).

Year	Educational expenditure	Percentage of National Budget
1971/2	59 558	5.24
1972/3	99 628	7.86
1973/4	124 263	8.03
1974/5	158 769	9.12
1975/6	245 824	11.45
1976/7	257 829	10.87
1977/8	277 671	8.99
1978/9	322 705	8.59

Source: Nepal, Ministry of Education data.

As can be seen from the Table, there has been a continuing increase in the Ministry of Education's expenditure, as measured in current prices, but as a proportion of the national budget the peak was reached in 1975/6, coinciding with the period of the most rapid expansion under NESP.

The breakdown of heads of ministerial expenditures at the inception of NESP and in the latest year is as shown in the following Table.

The breakdown of budgetary expenditure on education shows that the most important sector is higher education, because at this level government covers capital as well as recurrent costs. The greater expenditure on primary education than on lower secondary and secondary is due in part to the introduction of free primary education in 1975. It is notable that very little is spent on adult education, and that the expenditure on curriculum development and educational materials is a declining proportion of the total. Also very little is allotted for school supervision.

Table 5. Structure of expenditure on education (in thousands of Nepalese rupees).

Heads	1971/72		1979/80	
	Amount	Per-centage	Amount	Per-centage
1. Primary	13 567	22.8	98 624	28.3
2. Lower Secondary & Secondary	13 675	22.9	73 967	21.2
3. Higher (Tribhuvan University)	17 188	28.9	118 453	34.0
4. Adult	993	1.7	2 408	.7
5. Curriculum development & Educational materials	4 303	7.2	14 604	4.2
6. Scholarships and Students Welfare	1 454	2.4	3 693	1.1
7. Educational Administration	5 762	9.7	23 444	6.7
8. Supervision, Training & Publicity	-	-	1 609	.5
9. Archeology	-	-	1 800	.5
10. Science and Technology Council	-	-	795	.2
11. Others	2 616	4.4	9 362	2.6
Total	59 558	100.0	348 759	100.0

Source: Ministry of Education, Kathmandu

The considerable rise in expenditure on education has been due on the one hand to such factors as the national education policy, qualitative improvement in many aspects of education, the new improved educational structure and organisation, and the new multi-dimensional educational pattern. But conversely the effects of price inflation and significant salary increases for teachers must also be taken into account. Nevertheless, the budget allotment to education in Nepal remains small compared with many other developing countries, which in part is a reflection of the importance attached to community contributions in this field.

(f) The rôle and effectiveness of the local community in education

The involvement of a broad cross-section of local communities in planning, organising and developing education is prominent in the agenda of educational reform in many countries. In Nepal, the rapid expansion of education since 1951 has been due mainly to the active participation of the local community. Financing of almost all the schools was largely the responsibility of local communities. The government provided only negligible grants-in-aid to schools. Primary schools were provided Rs. 1,100 per annum as a salary for one trained teacher. Similarly lower secondary schools were provided with a lump sum of Rs. 2,000 - 3,000 and secondary schools with Rs. 7,200 per annum. But the assistance on the part of the local community included teachers' salaries, expenses incurred in the establishment of physical facilities and other operating costs of the school. The Managing Committees, consisting of 5 to 7 people, representing a varied cross-section of society, were made responsible for the entire financing of schools. Besides, these committees were directly involved in the administration and supervision of the schools.

But the implementation of the National Education System Plan places on the government a greater responsibility and an increased financial burden for education. However, it does not in any way detract from, nor diminish, the responsibilities of the local communities. The government's policy is to continue to involve, as much as possible, the local communities in the organisation and planning of the education system. This new education plan has specified that school-building, furniture and other expenses should be met by local communities, who will also provide the necessary labour. Under this system, the former Managing Committees are replaced by the School Co-operation Committees. These School Co-operation Committees are however not made responsible for the entire operation of the school, since most of the functions of the Managing Committees have been given to the District Education Committees headed by the president of the District Panchayat. However, it cannot be denied that local community participation has decreased in comparison to the situation before the implementation of the National Education System Plan. Progress has been seen in the field of mobilisation of local communities' resources for activities such as school construction, furniture and other expenses at the secondary level, but needed progress has not been made in the field of primary and lower secondary

education. At present, the contribution made through local community participation is primarily limited to constructing new schools, as the communities no longer have the feeling of a sense of ownership of the school, rather they think that the schools now belong to the government.

So far as the effectiveness of the community in education is concerned, it is often not as good as it should be. Thus some schools are facing difficulties of operation due to the lack of proper mobilisation of local community participation. In particular lower secondary and secondary schools in the mountainous regions are facing the problem of budget deficits due to the lack of needed local participation. As such, the policy of government of subsidizing lower secondary and secondary teachers' salaries by 75 per cent and 50 per cent respectively, while leaving the community to pay the costs of physical facilities and running expenses, is open to question

(g) The education of girls

It is government policy to stimulate growth in the enrolment of girls in the schools, however there is still a wide gap between the enrolment of boys and girls at all levels of education. The proportion of enrolment of girls at different levels of school education in the year 1973 and 1979 is shown as follows:

Table 6. Female school enrolments

	Girls' enrolment	1973	Girls enrolment	1979
		Proportion in enrolment		Proportion in enrolment
Primary	49 234	16.3%	270 740	26.7%
Lower Secondary	24 298	15.4%	68 133	19.9%
Secondary	10 577	18.1%	18 253	17.2%
School System	84 109 ^a	16.3%	356 793	24.4%

Source: Ministry of Education, Educational Statistics Report, 1980

Despite this still unsatisfactory situation, progress has been achieved, in particular at the primary and lower secondary levels, but especially in the rural areas the social barriers to female education are still strong.

(h) The promotion of education in remote areas

Eighteen of the country's seventy five districts including Rasuwa have been officially designated as remote districts. All these districts are in the mountain sub-regions and are the most under-privileged areas of the country. The development of these districts can only be achieved with the help of extended educational opportunities which in turn will hopefully instigate an increased number of the people to undertake active participation in the development efforts of their district and the nation. For the promotion of education in remote areas, the National Education System Plan aims at breaking the monopoly of the urban areas and endeavours to decentralise educational facilities in the country and to democratize access to them.

To widen the education opportunities for the remote areas, including Rasuwa district, His Majesty's Government of Nepal, social service groups and international organisations have taken the following measures:

- (i) Special teachers' training schemes viz. remote area teacher training programme, support for the access of women to teaching, distance learning primary teacher training programme etc. are conducted to meet the demand for trained primary teachers in remote areas.
- (ii) The government has taken responsibility for payment of the salaries of teachers at all the three levels of school education. A provision of 110 per cent additional allowance is made to encourage and attract teachers to work in the remote areas.
- (iii) In remote districts, girl students at the secondary level receive text books free of charge.
- (iv) Scholarships are provided to poor but outstanding students, with a higher number of scholarships allocated for remote areas.
- (v) In the remote areas, tuition is free for all girl students up to and including the secondary level.
- (vi) Some special welfare associations, such as Nepal Children's Organisation are running educational centres in most districts for under-privileged children, where skill training is also provided.
- (vii) A complementary system of non-formal education has been developed to convey basic knowledge and skills to those who are deprived of educational opportunities and who have remained outside the formal system of education.

As a result of these efforts made for the promotion of education in remote areas, these districts show a high apparent primary enrolment ratio of 91.5 per cent while the national apparent primary enrolment ratio is only 87.6 per cent in the year 1979. In the case of Rasuwa district this ratio was 144.4 per cent in the year 1979, but several factors such as curtailment of school working hours due to climatic influences, low qualifications of teachers and poorer instructional facilities available in these districts, imply that the quality of education is still lower there compared to more accessible areas. The schools in these districts, especially secondary schools, suffer from a lack of qualified teachers.

(1) The development of education in the three districts studied

The accompanying table gives a brief resumé of the recent educational development in each of the three districts in which fieldwork for the study was undertaken. Between 1975 and 1979 there was only a limited creation of new schools, mostly at the primary level in Kapilvastu, and at the lower secondary level in Gulmi and Rasuwa. But in general the significant expansions of primary and lower secondary education have taken place through the growth of existing institutions.

Both Kapilvastu and Gulmi have well established structures of education, but in Rasuwa it is evident that the development of education beyond the primary level is a very recent phenomenon, and still in the course of introduction. In Kapilvastu and Gulmi it is noticeable that the considerable expansion of enrolments has resulted in a significant increase in pupil/teacher ratios, implying a growth in the size of classes. However, the proportion of trained teachers has not significantly improved, except at the secondary level in Gulmi. Therefore it must be doubted whether the quality of education in the classroom has been able to keep pace with the growth of the system. In Rasuwa, although the number of primary teachers has kept pace with the growth of enrolments the proportion of trained teachers remains exceptionally low.

In conclusion it may be said that all three districts contain fast growing educational systems, but that this growth continues to be accompanied by serious and even intensifying problems with regard to the adequacy of the facilities and services provided in response to the growing demand.

Table 7. Educational development in Kapilvastu, Gulmi and Rasuwa

Year	Number of schools			Number of students						Number of teachers					
Year	Lower secondary			Primary			Lower secondary			Secondary			Primary		
	Primary	secondary	Secondary	Total enrolled	Enrolment ratio	Pupil/teacher ratio	Total enrolled	Pupil/teacher ratio	Total enrolled	Pupil/teacher ratio	Total enrolled	Pupil/teacher ratio	Total trained	P	Total trained
KAPILVASTU															
1975	116	29	7	7 393	42.3	26.6	2 005	18.1	888	20.7	278	53.6	111	27.9	43
1979	125	29	8	13 057	69.8	39.6	3 725	26.8	1 121	20.8	330	57.9	139	33.1	54
GULMI															
1975	205	52	8	11 477	55.6	24.7	3 214	18.6	797	13.9	465	21.1	173	28.3	57
1979	207	63	10	19 791	92.1	36.0	6 811	31.5	1 345	21.3	549	20.9	216	33.8	63
RASUWA															
1975	30	1	-	929	74.6	24.4	70	35.0	-	-	38	13.2	2	50.0	-
1979	34	16	1	1 872	144.4	23.1	357	12.3	44	22.0	81	16.0	29	27.6	2

Source: Ministry of Education, Educational Statistics Report, 1980

CHAPTER III

THE EXISTING TEACHING/LEARNING SITUATION

(a) Introduction

Supervision exists primarily for improving the teaching and learning situation. Thus, supervision is related to all the factors governing the processes of teaching and learning, the teacher, the student, the curriculum, the materials of instruction and the social/physical environment of schools. The supervisor should try to improve the prevailing teaching/learning situation by ensuring that the whole curriculum is taught using improved instructional materials, and innovative practices. The essence of educational reform is the improvement of teaching and learning in schools. No reform will be worth its name, if the classroom instruction is not made more effective and if the learning outcomes of the students are not improved. It is the task of supervisors to improve teachers' performance in the classroom through class visits, individual and group meetings, demonstration of instructional materials, and organizing training activities.

In this chapter the improvements in the teaching/learning situation intended to be brought about by NESP are first described, and then features of the existing situation are set out, mainly drawing on the data collected in the course of the fieldwork in the three districts studied.

(b) The intentions of NESP for the teaching/learning situation

The teaching/learning process before the introduction of the National Education System Plan in 1971 was characterized as being based on textbooks, rote learning and teachers lecturing, and was also examination oriented. The situation was aptly described by Dr. Mohammad Mohsin as follows:

"Under the inherited system of education, teachers' jobs are confined to teaching students what they find inscribed in the prescribed texts. Similarly, the system limits students' rôle to memorising of and reproducing the textual lessons. There is no community of interest between these two groups. Neither the teachers display a sense of responsibility towards the students, nor, for that reason, do students manifest any involvement for learning."¹

NESP introduced a number of steps to improve the classroom teaching/learning situation. These were:

(1) Clear statement of objectives for each level of education: The imparting of literacy (reading, writing, and arithmetic skills) was set

1. M. Mohsin, "Nepal's Attempts at Educational Renovation" in M. Mohsin and P. Kasaju (eds.) Education and Development Kathmandu, National Education Committee, 1975, p.7

as the aim of the primary level; character building and pre-vocational orientation that of the lower secondary level, and preparation of productive citizens that of the secondary level.

(11) Prescription of a new curriculum: New curricula were developed for all subjects taught in the schools. The new curricula tried to impart more relevant education and incorporated new developments in the various subject areas. As a result the structure of the curriculum is as shown below.

Table 8. Curriculum structure (percentage of school hours).

Subject	Primary	Lower Secondary	Secondary (General)
Language: Nepali	40	40	12
English	-	10	12
Social Studies	20	10	17
Mathematics	30	15	12
Pre-vocational	-	10	-
Science	-	10	17
Physical Education	-	5	-
Vocational Subject	-	-	20
Optional Subject	-	-	10
Health, Handicraft & Drawing	10	-	-

(111) New textbooks: New textbooks and teacher guides were prepared on the basis of the new curriculum for all subjects. These books had several features to facilitate learning; illustrations, pictures, self study questions, self evaluation tests, suggestions for further study, and study units. Textbooks still remain the single most important instructional material in Nepal, and teaching is associated primarily with textbooks. Teachers use textbooks to determine the content of their teaching, and also evaluate the students and the results of their teaching by the extent to which the students have been able to read, memorise and report on the contents of the textbooks. Currently a new integrated curriculum and text is being proposed for primary grades.

(iv) Appointment of trained teachers: NESP emphasized the importance of training for all teachers. The need for well qualified and trained teachers to handle the new curriculum and textbooks is evident. NESP suggested the following minimum qualifications for teachers:

- Primary teachers: secondary school leaving certificate and 10 months' training.
- Lower Secondary teachers: two years' higher education (certificate level) and a minimum of 5 months' training.
- Secondary teachers: bachelor's degree and a minimum of 5 months' training.

NESP also suggested the following number of teachers for schools of different levels: 4 for a primary school, 5 for a lower secondary school and 6 for a secondary school. It also proposed a teacher pupil ratio of 1:30 for the primary level, and 1:25 for the lower secondary and secondary level. At present the effective teacher pupil ratio at primary level is 1:40 and the number of teachers in any particular school is based on the size of enrolment. Thus (particularly in remote areas) there are many one and two teacher schools.

Teacher training facilities have been expanded to meet the needs of both inservice and pre-service training. Since a large number of working primary teachers do not possess the minimum S.L.C. qualification, special teacher-training programmes meeting the needs of such under-qualified teachers have been run in different campuses of the Institute of Education. To increase the number of female teachers at primary level, special teacher-training programmes are being conducted in three campuses. A radio education primary teacher training programme for in-service teachers will soon be launched, which will eventually ensure that all teachers at least have a minimum of training.

(v) Supply of instructional materials: NESP proposed that in the shortest possible time all secondary schools should have a library and a science laboratory. The government has already financed the construction of vocational workshops at many secondary schools and also supplied the materials required for the vocational teaching. All schools, whether primary, lower secondary, or secondary, receive an initial supply of educational materials when the schools are recognized and registered. The distribution of textbooks published by the Janak Educational Materials

Centre is entrusted to the Sajha Publishers. The Science Equipment Centre attached to the Curriculum, Textbook and Supervision Development Centre has been engaged in production of prototype science equipment. The distribution of these prototypes is at present very limited and has no impact on science teaching. The teaching of science and vocational subjects is seriously impeded not only by shortage of qualified teachers but also by lack of proper equipment. Lack of essentials such as easy access to water, fuel and electricity further hinder the teaching of these subjects.

(vi) Evaluation system: NESP has reformed the system of evaluating student performance with the aim of encouraging regular studies by students and of assessing the progress of students on an objective basis. The internal evaluation system, and regular tests based on units of courses completed, have been adopted. At present short answer tests are in vogue. The final high school examination system is beset with many management problems. Aware of the fact that many students fail to get through in all the nine subjects of study at one and the same time the government has now permitted students, if they so desire, to appear at this examination on a subject by subject basis.

(c) Current shortcomings in the teaching/learning situation

(i) Failure, absenteeism and drop-out: One of the main problems in the Nepalese education system is the very high failure rate (60% to 70%) in the school leaving certificate (S.L.C.) examination at the end of secondary education. These failure rates are an indication of massive wastage in educational investments, and of the poor teaching learning situation in the schools. It is found that the failures have been mainly due to the examinees' incompetence in subjects like English, Mathematics and Science. This can be traced to lack of trained and qualified teachers in these subjects in most secondary schools. A further area of great wastage is the grade I level at the end of which some 30 per cent of students dropout and another 40 per cent repeat.

Although enrolments have increased substantially under NESP, there is a considerable discrepancy between reported class enrolment and observed class attendance at all levels of school education. Irregular student attendance in the class is symptomatic of a deep malaise in the school system. It indicates the lack of attractiveness of the school and its programmes, low motivation among students to learn, and social/economic compulsions to stay away from school. An idea of the discrepancy

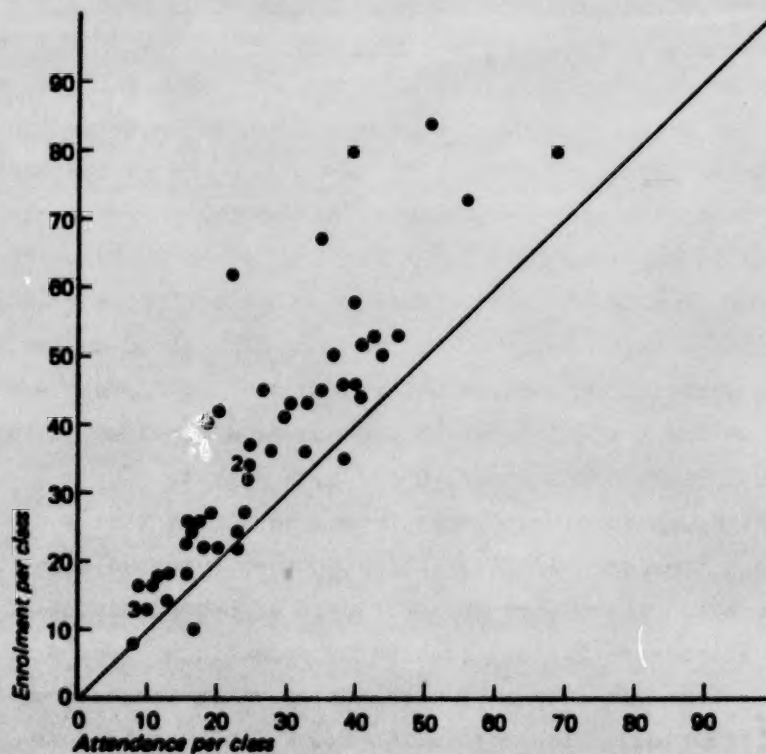
between reported enrolments and class attendance can be gained from the data in Table 9 below, based on data collected from the three districts studied.

Table 9. Discrepancy between reported enrolment and actual attendance

District	Classes observed	Registered students in the classes observed	Actual attendance	Percentage of those enrolled attending
Kapilvastu	32	1 208	850	70.3
Gulmi	18	593	493	83.1
Rasuwa	2	28	13	46.4

This information may also be portrayed graphically as is shown below, for the Kapilvastu and Gulmi districts only. All the observations above the diagonal line are instances where attendance at an observed class was below the official enrolment, in some instances dramatically so.

Chart 1. Class enrolment and attendance - Kapilvastu and Gulmi districts.



Some causes of irregular attendance of students are; activity of children in household and farmwork, poor health and nutrition of children and general apathy of the parents towards their children's education, distances the children have to travel to school, inadequate physical facilities in schools, and negligence of duties by the teachers, among other things. Various factors have recently accentuated the situation of irregular attendance. These are frequent closure of schools due to students' strikes, teachers' strikes, absence of teachers from the school and lack of seating facilities etc. In the Terai (including Kapilvastu) and northern mountain districts (including Rasuwa), constraints such as the use of Nepali as the medium of teaching children (at primary level) whose mother tongue is not Nepali, might also have affected student attendance and achievement at this level.

The irregular attendance might well be one of the causes of low achievement by students, and it is also a factor leading to ultimate drop-out from the school.

The dropout situation in the educational system is especially marked at the primary level. As many as 60 per cent to 70 per cent of the 1st grade students are found to either have dropped out in transition to 2nd grade or repeated the 1st grade. The extent of repetition is observed to be quite high in Nepal, especially in rural areas, where children start learning alphabets and handwriting only after entering the 1st grade. (The present 1st grade primary textbook pre-supposes the student's familiarity with alphabets and some handwriting before admission to 1st grade.) In the non-literate environment that exists in most of Nepal, this is not very realistic.

(ii) Training and experience of teachers: Nothing is more important for improving instruction than a competent teacher. His preparedness, enthusiasm, training and skill go a long way to make instruction effective. The teacher should have the basic minimum academic preparation so that he can handle the subject matter well. He must also be proficient in teaching techniques so that he can communicate effectively and promote learning by students, involving them in activities as well as memorisation.

Much has been done since the introduction of the Education Plan to raise the status of teachers and improve their service conditions. New salary scales have been instituted comparable to those in the civil service;

security of tenure has been given and benefits like a provident fund and pensions have been introduced. Though there is a sizeable turnover in the teaching profession, especially at the primary level, the situation seems to have improved considerably and most teachers now look forward to staying in the profession.

The qualification and training profile of the teaching force is gradually improving with the growing competition for teaching jobs from qualified persons, and with the turning out of more and more graduates by Tribhuvan University. Many working teachers have taken advantage of evening classes (extension programme of Institute of Education) to upgrade their training qualification in Kathmandu. The growth in the proportion of trained teachers has been shown in Table 3.

The in-service training of teachers was stressed by the 1976 Report of the Mid-term evaluation of the NESP. At present the system of in-service training allows teachers to obtain higher degrees in education. Thus a primary teacher becomes 'trained' after completing ten months of training, but if he continues for a second ten-month period of training he can then obtain the certificate-level qualification in education (formerly known as 'intermediate' level), which entitles him to apply for a lower secondary teaching post. Many primary schools have lost their most able teachers in this way. A recent recommendation intended to minimize this occurrence is that primary teachers should return to primary teaching for several years after completing their initial training, before they would be allowed to undertake a further period of training.

In Table 10 below are shown the qualifications of teachers in the three districts studied during 1979, broken down by levels of education. In general the educational level and training of teachers is better in Kapilvastu and Gulmi than in Rasuwa. An additional problem in Rasuwa is that most of the teachers are not local people, and hence do not speak the local language, so that they have difficulty communicating with the children. In fact the problem is even more difficult than this suggests, because many of these teachers are from the terai region and do not have Nepali as their mother tongue, so that the medium of instruction is a foreign language for both teachers and taught in this instance.

Table 10. Qualifications and training of teachers, 1979

District	Under S.L.C.	S.L.C. or equivalent	I.A. or equivalent	B.A. or equivalent	M.A. or equivalent	Total
A. Kapilvastu						
1. Primary	30	238	61	1	-	330
% trained	93.3	56.7	44.3	100.0	-	57.9
2. Lower Secondary	-	24	92	23	-	139
% trained	-	81.3	25.0	13.0	-	33.1
3. Secondary	-	-	4	47	3	54
% trained	-	-	50.0	44.7	66.7	46.3
B. Gulmi						
1. Primary	213	326	7	3	-	549
% trained	29.9	19.0	-	-	-	20.9
2. Lower Secondary	-	56	148	12	-	216
% trained	-	51.8	29.1	8.3	-	33.8
3. Secondary	-	-	8	53	2	63
% trained	-	-	12.5	75.5	50.0	66.7
C. Rasuwa						
1. Primary	55	26	-	-	-	81
% trained	16.4	15.4	-	-	-	16.0
2. Lower Secondary	5	7	16	1	-	29
% trained	40.0	14.3	25.0	100.0	-	27.6
3. Secondary	-	-	-	2	-	2
% trained	-	-	-	100.0	-	100.0

Source: Ministry of Education, Kathmandu

(111) Teaching methods: The NESP document made the following remarks with regard to the teaching methods prevailing before 1971:

"The present education system has not been able to function as an effective means of imparting knowledge. Besides, the present examination system, which is an integral part of the system has encouraged a tendency of learning by rote".(1)

(1) Nepal, Ministry of Education. National Education System Plan for 1971-76
Kathmandu, 1971 p.5.

The document recommended carrying out research projects on new methods of teaching and gradual countrywide application of the new teaching methods after the testing of research findings.

Even after almost a decade of implementation of the Education Plan, the Nepalese educational system, especially at the secondary level, is heavily influenced by the requirements of the examination system. The teachers have to complete certain prescribed syllabi and prepare the students to sit for the examination. The quality of instruction is measured, in the public eye, in terms of the number of successful candidates from the school in the final examination. Emphasis is thus largely on lecturing and rote learning. Teaching is largely textbook based.

Resort to lecturing on most occasions might have been prompted by lack of teacher training among large numbers of teachers. Most teachers find it necessary to rely on books for systematic presentation of the subject matter, and for insuring completion of the prescribed syllabus.

In the districts studied the teachers surveyed were asked to indicate the main difficulties they faced in giving instruction in the classroom. Their replies are shown in Table 11 below, from which it is clear that the major problems are lack of educational materials and poor physical facilities.

Table 11. Teachers' opinions regarding the difficulties faced in classroom instruction

Causes of difficulty	Kapilvastu 48 teachers	Gulmi 32 teachers	Rasuwa 6 teachers
1. Student indifference	8	3	2
2. Irregular attendance of students	14	11	4
3. Lack of directions & guidance from Headmasters and Supervisors	6	6	3
4. Lack of educational materials	40	27	4
5. Lack of Textbooks	21	9	2
6. Lack of Physical facilities	35	18	3
7. Apathy of Parents	24	14	5

Most of the teachers surveyed claimed to be preparing lesson plans to guide their teaching, though this finding conflicts with general opinion about the activity of teachers in this respect.

Table 12. Frequency of lesson plan preparation

District	Regularly	Sometimes	Never	When asked to
Kapilvastu (48 Teachers)	40	6	2	-
Gulmi (32 Teachers)	21	10	-	1
Rasuwa (6 Teachers)	1	4	1	-

The lack of availability of educational materials and the limited working facilities were again stressed as being the major obstacles faced in undertaking lesson preparation.

From the observations of class teaching during the survey in the three districts, it was clear that the commonest forms of teaching involved reading aloud from the textbook, either by the teacher or the students, or the teacher asking questions about the textbook. In very few instances were any other teaching materials being used, or were the students undertaking other learning activities.

(iv) Availability of textbooks and other teaching materials:

It has already been emphasised that textbooks occupy a key rôle in instruction and learning in Nepal and that in many places the textbooks are the only instructional material available. The availability of textbooks has two aspects; supply of the textbooks by the Janak Education Materials Centre to the districts and purchase by the students. The primary textbooks are made available without charge, but all textbooks for lower secondary and secondary grades have to be purchased by the students, though at subsidized prices. Even then many students coming from poor families find it difficult to purchase these books. Moreover, especially in mountainous and remote districts the availability of textbooks at the beginning of the school year has sometimes been limited - in many areas the only method for the books to reach the schools is on the backs of porters.

However in most of the schools surveyed the supply of textbooks, exercise books and writing implements appeared to be adequate, but with regard to charts and other visual materials only one school in Kapilvastu and another in Gulmi were displaying these in the classrooms. A number of schools had several wall-charts, but usually they were kept locked in the headmaster's office, and not used to improve the classroom environment.

The 1979 report of the Full Term Evaluation of NESP noted the shortage of educational materials as one of the main causes of the low standards of education, with the shortage being equally evident in Terai, Hills and remote districts. Very little development of educational

materials using local materials was done. The supervision survey team came to similar conclusions. If materials were not provided teachers tended to use nothing rather than make their own materials.

- In many schools the problem is not merely that of non availability of educational materials, but also the inability and unwillingness of the teachers to use any available materials. This might have been partly due to lack of training in handling the materials. The untrained teachers are unaware of the techniques of using materials in instruction. The following remarks by Dr. P. Kasaju are relevant here:

"In most cases teachers lack the prerequisite training in their use and are naturally threatened by their delicate nature and appearance (especially science equipment) ... Any enquiry into these matters turns out most embarrassing for the teachers and the administrative personnel. In the case of many vocational tools and instruments, teachers find them inappropriate, weak and poorly designed".

(v) The deficiencies of school premises

The school building should be attractive because it is the first thing the students and the people notice. The students would not feel like living and working in a building that is dusty, dark and in poor condition: The adequacy of space for all enrolled students is equally important. Ventilation and lighting should be sufficient to enable students to do their best work. There should be clean drinking water, toilet facilities and also a school kitchen garden.

But school premises are found to be in poor condition in many parts of the country. The Full Term Evaluation Report, 1979 noted that the schools have not been able to provide a proper educational environment due to lack of doors, roofs and furniture. The lack of reasonably good buildings affects the quality of instruction. It is not possible to conduct regular classes in structures with leaking roofs during the rainy season. The effective instructional hours are sharply curtailed due to lack of good buildings. During the visits of the survey team in the three districts it was frequently found that classes were being conducted in the open air, because during the winter it is warmer to sit outside in the sun than in poorly ventilated and unheated classrooms.

In Nepal, schools have been one of the immediately felt needs of the people, so that people have contributed towards the construction of school buildings in the form of cash, labour, land or materials. The construction and improvement of school buildings is still the responsibility of the local communities. The Full Term Evaluation Report has noted that though many school buildings have been constructed with local community co-operation, many of these schools do not yet have the necessary furniture.

3- The schools are allowed to collect funds for repair and maintenance of buildings. They can, for example, retain the income from the land and immovable property, if any, and can charge additional fees for repair and maintenance purposes. Boarding schools collect sizable amounts from 'deposits' from students at the time of registration.

The primary schools in the public school system cannot however charge any fees, thus they depend on the resources of the community or the government for erecting and maintaining their buildings. Some cost sharing arrangements like provision of roofing materials by UNICEF have been of help in this respect. However not more than half of the classrooms visited in the three districts surveyed could be considered as well maintained or clean.

The government has since 1975 converted some schools into model schools which are intended to show the way in propagating new instructional methods. These schools have buildings and furniture of a given standard suiting local conditions and using local knowledge of building structures and resources. Due attention is given to the size of the classroom, ventilation and lighting. Furniture is to be of local materials as far as possible. The number of schools involved in this programme is small, 34 between 1980 and 1985, and the resources granted by the government are in the form of a fixed capital outlay which is to be deposited in the bank. Interest proceeds would be used for financing improvements.

(vi) The background and origins of the students

It is well known that his economic and social environment can have an impact on a child's educational performance. This may be in terms of access to books and other media, or even in relation to such basic problems as the incidence of malnutrition, which is apparently a significant factor in Rasuwa. No study has yet been conducted in Nepal to find out the educational consequences of poverty, or the differential educational performance of students coming from different economic strata, or from different locations (urban/rural). However, it could be generalized that it is the children from the better off families who benefit most from the educational facilities offered by a system with an elitist bias. Also it is generally observed that it is the children from the poorer sections of the community and the rural areas who most frequently drop out of school, or fail to proceed to the upper levels of the system.

The three districts studied are overwhelmingly rural and agricultural in character, with generally low income levels, in particular in Rasuwa. Indeed it was in this last district that the problem of school attendance was particularly mentioned by those interviewed, with poverty and malnutrition being referred to as causative factors.

(d) Conclusion

As can be understood from the description in the preceding paragraphs, the teaching/learning situation in Nepal, as in the districts studied, continues to be far from the aspirations expressed in the NESP. In these circumstances, there is clearly an important potential rôle to be played by the government in contributing to the process of emancipation.

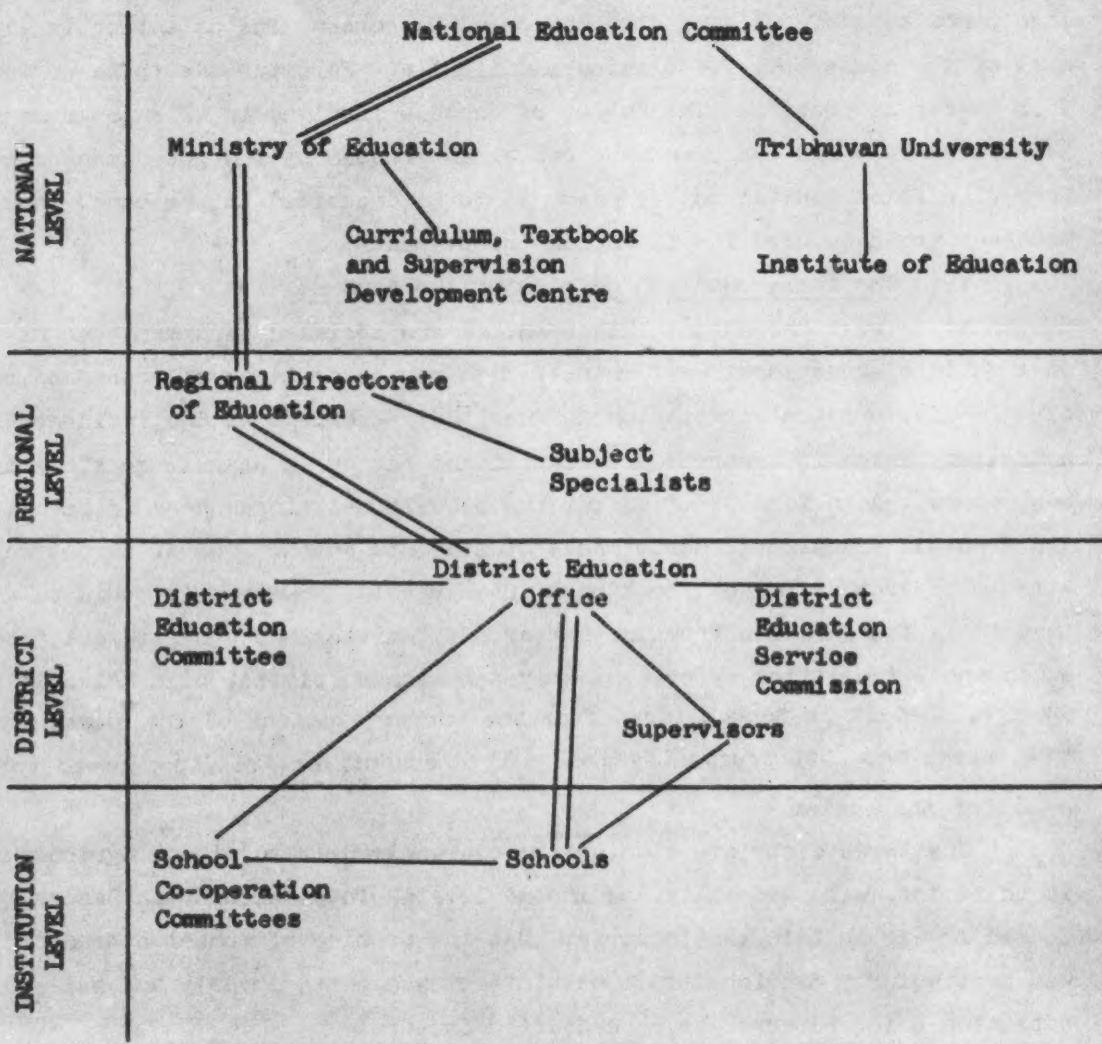
CHAPTER IV

THE STRUCTURE OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION

(a) Introduction

The structure of educational administration and the position of the supervisors within it is shown in the following diagram, after which separate descriptions are given of the various components. Their effectiveness is evaluated in Chapter V.

Chart 2. Nepal : Administrative structure of education



(b) The National Education Committee

At the highest level of the administrative structure comes the National Education Committee, which was established on the introduction of the NESP to guide its implementation by the Ministry of Education and Tribhuvan University. Subsequently the Committee has been retained to provide general guidance for the further development of education.

The Committee consists of 8 members. The ex officio Chairman is the Minister of Education, with the Assistant Minister of Education as his ex officio Deputy. Other ex officio members are the Secretary of the Ministry of Education, the Vice-Chancellor of Tribhuvan University, and the Member of the National Planning Commission responsible for education. Finally the three remaining members of the Committee are nominated by the King to act in their personal capacity. In addition the Committee has its own secretariat.

Under the NESP the duties of the Committee were laid down as follows: 1.

- (a) Formulate policies and issue directives
- (b) Co-ordinate the functions of Tribhuvan University, the Education Ministry and other Ministries concerned in enforcing the National Education Plan
- (c) Evaluate the progress of the entire educational programme.
- (d) Report to His Majesty the King on the educational progress from time to time
- (e) Clarify the plan as and when required.
- (o) Ministry of Education

The Ministry of Education is the central organization responsible for policy matters, planning, programming, supervision, co-ordination, guidance and evaluation, in keeping with policy guidelines given by the National Education Committee. Before 1971 the Ministry was not extensively developed. As recommended by the NESP it was reorganized in 1971 with a considerable expansion in its structure and coverage. The 1976 Mid-term Evaluation Report of the NESP recommended the reduction of some sections and line offices in the Ministry. Accordingly, the ministry was again reorganized in 1978. The basic purpose of this re-organization was two-fold.

1. Nepal, Ministry of Education. National Education System Plan for 1971-76 Kathmandu, 1971 p.14.

- (1) To strengthen the Regional Directorates and District Education Offices to enable them to perform effectively in the management of school education in a decentralized way.
- (2) To enable the MOE to concentrate more on planning and policy tasks.

An organigramme of the present administrative structure in the Ministry is shown in the Annex to the study.

The MOE has been restructured into three main divisions, each with well defined duties and responsibilities. The Planning Division with its four sections is entrusted with formulating and evaluating plans and programmes, making various manpower and statistics projections, government financing of education and identifying and facilitating UNESCO/UNICEF assistance to education. The Education Administration Division with its four sections is organized to manage primary, lower secondary and higher education including teacher training and adult education programmes. The General Administration Division looks after publicity, information and public relations and property management services. The personnel administration section of this division is responsible for the selection and recruitment of various school supervisors under the existing rules and regulations. Each Division in the Ministry is headed by a Joint Secretary assisted by Under Secretaries for each section.

(d) The Curriculum, Textbook and Supervision Development Centre

The CTSDC was reorganized and upgraded in 1978 following the recommendation of the Mid-term Review of the NESP. Under the new arrangement, new functions in supervisory services, and co-curricular activities (previously attached to the Ministry) have been given to CTSDC, the existing organizational structure being shown in the Annex. In this way a variety of technical and professional activities of the Ministry have been grouped together under a single leadership, so that they may be better co-ordinated. Apart from the formal structure of the Centre, various committees exist to co-ordinate and oversee its work.

One of the objectives of this reorganization of CTSDC is to make it responsible for the formulation of national programmes of supervision and related policy decisions, as well as professional guidance and evaluation of supervisory work in the four regions so that supervisors' responsibilities are closely related to the implementation of curriculum reforms.

The centre is entrusted with the following activities in supervision:

- (a) Preparing supervision manuals for Regional Specialists and District Supervisors.
- (b) Designing training/workshop/seminars for regional level subject specialists, and district level primary and secondary school supervisors.
- (c) Designing a model of scientific supervision for the betterment of the teaching/learning situation in schools.
- (d) Evaluating the teaching/learning situation and identifying its deficient areas, and providing solutions to remedy them.
- (e) Providing guidance and counselling services.
- (f) Evaluating teaching/learning and other academic programmes of the school.
- (g) Evaluating supervision systems.

But the Centre has not yet been able to perform many of the above-mentioned activities, since this arrangement is comparatively new and it will of course take some time to achieve an efficient level of operation. The Centre is collaborating with the Institute of Education in the design of courses for the short-term training of primary and secondary supervisors, which are run in each Regional Directorate. These training courses were previously conducted by each Regional Education Directorate independently. The short term/workshop courses for primary supervisors include areas such as Curriculum, Evaluation, Supervision and Instructional material. Those for secondary supervisors cover areas such as communications and reporting systems, use and maintenance of local resources, deficient areas of teacher-training programmes and implementation of the curriculum. In addition the Centre has begun to produce a bulletin for supervisors as a channel of information and a means to stimulate two-way communication.

(e) The Institute of Education

The Institute of Education of Tribhuvan University, which operates from 14 campuses throughout the country, is the only formal organization which offers courses in teacher training. In addition, courses are conducted on education administration and supervision for primary and secondary supervisors, and also for teachers and headmasters. The

Institute has been conducting for the last few years one to three months' courses for the school supervisors. The contents of these courses usually include:

- (a) Report presentation by the participants on the problems related to school supervision.
- (b) Discussions
- (c) Panel discussions
- (d) School observation
- (e) Case studies
- (f) Paper presentation by resource persons.

The IOE courses are often designed by taking units from either the A or the B level primary teacher training courses or by taking some units from Diploma in Education courses. These courses for secondary and primary school supervisors have been regarded as effective in developing necessary skills and attitudes, but only a small number of supervisors have been trained so far. Attendance at these courses counts as a qualification for the promotion of supervisors, whereas the CTSDC's training rôle has so far been limited to the shorter periods of training carried out by Regional Directorates.

(f) Regional Directorates of Education

At present there are four Regional Directorates for the whole country. These Directorates have been empowered to implement the entire educational programme approved by the Ministry. They also provide feedback to the different programming and policy making organs in the Ministry. Following the recommendation of the Mid-term Review of the NESP the Directorates have been further expanded and strengthened, with the addition of personnel for planning activities. The directorates have also been delegated further responsibility for financial and overall administrative matters. Also following the recommendation of the Mid-term Evaluation Report of the NESP, Vocational Subject Supervisors previously stationed in the District Education Offices, have been placed in the Directorate to carry out in-depth supervision of the different vocational subjects taught in secondary schools. A chart showing the present organization of the Directorate appears in the Annex.

The directorates have two major divisions, administrative and technical, and the sharing of authority between the two is clearly defined. The technical wing is inter alia responsible for the short-term

in-service training/workshops for primary supervisors and subject teachers. Various specialists (in general and vocational subjects) have been placed in this wing to formulate and implement these courses, which are conducted at both the Directorate and the District levels. In addition these specialists are charging with overseeing the teaching of different subjects in the secondary and lower secondary schools, but are expected to pay particular attention to the progress made in the more recently introduced vocational subjects.

(g) District Education Offices

Under the Four Regional Education Directorates there are 75 District Education Offices. The duties and responsibilities of these District Education Offices were widened with the implementation of the NESP, and following the recommendation of the Mid-term Review they have again been expanded and strengthened. An organigram of the structure of educational administration at the district level is shown in the Annex.

The District Education Officer (DEO), the head of the District Education Office, is responsible for the general management of education in his District. He is assisted by a number of technical (supervisors) and administrative and clerical staff. The administrative section deals with office as well as school administration including matters related to teachers' recruitment, salaries, promotion, dismissal etc. The supervision section is responsible for improving the teaching and learning process in the classroom and for many other duties such as auditing, inspection of facilities, fund raising and administrative work concerning teachers and pupils. Thus the supervisors are over-burdened and because of the diversity of their functions their effectiveness is sometimes low. They are very often involved in administrative duties only.

The NESP has vested in the DEO the important responsibility of implementing and supervising the educational programmes. A system of teacher recruitment, transfer, promotion and dismissal has been instituted at the district level. The DEO is supposed to play a key rôle in matters pertaining to the teachers, and also to see that schools have proper physical facilities, and that they are following the curriculum and achieving its objectives. He has to communicate to the Regional Directorate and the Ministry problems facing the district and to receive directives for action, and implement them.

The accomplishment of such important and complex tasks requires that the District Education Officer be not only an educator by background but also an efficient administrator. It was a great challenge for the Ministry to appoint people of such calibre in all the 75 districts. Only in the first two years of plan implementation, was it easy for the Ministry to appoint officials well versed in education, and experienced in school administration and supervision. Thus such officials were availed of with considerable effect in the 15 districts where the NESF was implemented during the first two years. Since then officials transferred from other ministries, who were unaware of the basic aims and objectives of education, began to be deputed as District Education Officers. Similarly some headmasters inexperienced in administration but knowledgeable about school affairs were also appointed as District Education Officers.

Since the District Education Offices have been made the main units responsible for the local implementation and evaluation of educational programmes, their workload has increased tremendously. But there has been no immediate commensurate increase in staffing. Compensatory increases were recommended by the Mid-term Evaluation Report, but their implementation has been only partial.

(h) The District Education Committees

This committee's task is to advise and provide general guidelines to the District Education Office on matters such as education planning, teacher administration, financing of education, organizing education seminars and exhibitions, and to provide guidance to the school co-operation committees in the district. The committee is chaired by the President of the District Panchayat (District political unit)¹. The

1. The Panchayat system of democracy was introduced in 1962, and has become institutionalized politically at the village and town, district, and national levels. Panchayats were created at these levels with the main objectives of mobilizing human and physical resources and developing local leadership. With this decentralization a comprehensive local authority system of government is established under which seventy-five district panchayats have statutory powers relating in particular to the development of education, health and agriculture. The lowest level village and town panchayats elect members to district panchayats, which in turn elect their representatives to the National Panchayat (Parliament). The President of the district panchayat is thus the senior political figure at the district level. In their local government rôle the district panchayats are supposed to prepare district level development plans in their various spheres of concern, which have to be approved by the assembly of the district panchayat. 47

Chief District Officer, who is in charge of overall District Administration, is the ex-officio deputy chairman. The other members are drawn from different cross-sections of society representing school teachers, panchayat workers, educationalists, social workers and intellectuals. The DEO functions as the member-secretary of the Committee. The committees have not been effective since most of them are passive and have a "rubber stamp" rôle in relation to what the District Education Office proposes and does. Although they are supposed to prepare district level education plans, and to ensure that the DEO has the necessary resources to implement them, in practice few committees carry out these tasks. They lack the necessary expertise, and also are not financially well off, as they are not authorised to raise financial resources in the district, other than a 5 per cent levy on the income of schools. But since most of the schools are in deficit, this provision remains ineffective. Apart from this the committee distributes the Government budget to the schools, but has no control over its allocation.

(i) The District Education Service Commission

With the implementation of the NESP, an Education Service Commission was been set up in each district. The ex-officio chairman of the commission is the Chief District Officer, the DEO acts as secretary to the commission. The other members of the commission are nominated by the District Panchayat and Zonal Commissioner. The commission provides advice to the District Education Officer on the recruitment, promotion, and dismissal of teachers and other administrative staff. The school supervisors are also supposed to be consulted in these matters. The District Education Office serves as secretariat to both the District Education Committee and the District Education Service Commission.

(j) The Supervisors

The NESP stressed the importance of a well organized supervision system for improving teaching/learning methods. With the implementation of the NESP a separate supervision section in the Ministry, in the Regional Directorates and even in the District Education Offices was set up to plan, co-ordinate and evaluate the supervision system. The posts of Primary and Secondary school supervisors were created in the Districts.

According to the NESP school supervision will have two rôles:

- (1) To examine the physical facilities of the school and find out whether the teachers are sufficient in number and are up to the standard in performance.
- (2) To evaluate the instructional standard at each level of school education.

To achieve the above objectives the Supervisors have been given the following responsibilities:¹.

- "(i) To evaluate the appropriateness of the curriculum, to bring about improvements in teaching methods, to develop teaching materials, and to develop suitable tests and evaluation tools.
- (ii) To see if the prescribed textbooks are being used in the schools, and to present reports on this matter.
- (iii) To observe whether educational materials are available in the schools in adequate quantities, whether proper use is being made of these materials, and to report accordingly.
- (iv) To inspect and evaluate the implementation of the curriculum and of educational programmes and activities by the headmaster and teachers and to suggest measures for improvement.
- (v) To convey official policy directives to the teachers, and through them to the students, to explain the content of these directives, and conversely to communicate to the Ministry the opinions, suggestions, and problems of teachers and students.
- (vi) To implement educational programmes successfully through personal observation, group conferences, and by issuing appropriate instructions.
- (vii) To take steps to ensure the establishment of minimum essential facilities for the school.
- (viii) To evaluate the standard of instruction and learning.
- (ix) To help raise the levels of teaching and learning by the use of scientific methods of instruction.
- (x) To arrange short-term training, workshops, and seminars for the teachers with the aim of enhancing their proficiency.
- (xi) To suggest improvements in the curriculum, textbooks, and educational materials.
- (xii) To implement educational programmes effectively.
- (xiii) To inspect whether schools are being run according to the rules and regulations laid down in the Education Act and Regulations.
- (xiv) To carry out necessary activities for bringing about improvements in the instructional system.
- (xv) To evaluate the work of teachers, to motivate them to perform efficiently, and to suggest steps for improvements."

1. Ministry of Education, Evaluation Division. Supervision Guide (in Nepali) Kathmandu, 1973.

The above set of responsibilities is exceptionally wide-ranging, and in some respects not well-defined. Elsewhere in the same publication the conceptual basis of supervision is set out as follows:

"1. The techniques of supervision should be goal-oriented. Supervision is a creative activity, having definite ends. The main aims of supervision are to provide a congenial environment for instruction and learning, to help solve problems of students, to provide directives and suggestions as necessary, to help promote professional growth of teachers, to promote and strengthen community-school relationships, to evaluate teaching and learning performance, and to take steps for all-round development of the school for the preparation of citizens as conceived by the Education Plan.

2. The supervisor should be familiar with all aspects of supervision before undertaking the task. Exclusive attention to any one aspect would make supervision ineffective"¹

From the foregoing quotations it seems clear that supervisors are expected to have a substantial breadth and depth of educational experience, besides being well trained for their task. In particular, apart from being capable of implementing directives, they should also be able to initiate activities and make proposals for action to the higher levels of the administration. It is against this comprehensive conception of the supervisor's rôle that Nepal's recent experience and progress in supervision need to be evaluated.²

The provision of supervisory staff within the Nepalese educational system is intended to be as set out in the table below, which shows the numbers of posts provided throughout the country.

Table 13. Posts provided for Supervisors, 1979/80

Regions	Primary school supervisor	General secondary supervisor	Subject specialists & technical personnel
Eastern Region	82	31	19
Central Region	83	33	19
Western Region	84	37	19
Far Western Region	78	34	19
Total	327	135	76

Source: Ministry of Education

1. Ministry of Education, Evaluation Division op.cit.
2. See Chapter V.

The primary supervisors inspect only primary schools, and may receive guidance from the secondary supervisors allocated within the same district, and responsible for the local lower secondary and secondary schools. Since the 1976 Mid-term Review of the NESP primary supervisors are each supposed to be responsible for 40 schools in the Kathmandu Valley and the terai, and for 30 schools in the hill and mountain areas. Similarly secondary supervisors are each in charge of 20 schools in the Valley and terai, and 15 in the hills and mountains. Application of these norms to the number of schools in each district is the basis for establishing the number of supervisors to be posted to each District Education Office.

The status, minimum qualifications and salary levels of supervisors are fixed under the NESP, and are shown in the table which follows. In addition to the salary figures shown there, all supervisors also receive a 33 per cent addition to their monthly salary as a field allowance, to cover the expenses incurred during the 25 days per month which they are currently required to spend on visits to schools.

Table 14. Status, minimum qualifications and salaries of supervisors

Level of Supervisor	Status	Minimum qualification	Salary scale (rupees per month)
Primary	Non-Gazetted	Certificate in Education or equivalent	435 x 12 to 555
	First class Technical		and 550 x 15 to 700
Secondary	Gazetted Class III Technical	Bachelor of Education or equivalent	700 x 15 to 850

Source : Ministry of Education

(k) Headmasters and teachers

Before NESP (1971) two categories of school teachers existed in the country (i) Government school teachers, (ii) Public school teachers. The teachers of the government schools, though very few in number, enjoyed all the privileges of the government service. The promotion system and the fringe benefits had made teaching in government schools fairly attractive. The teachers in the public schools were the ones who were deprived of all the benefits of an organized employment system.

Except for the very few who could manipulate the public funds for their own advantage most of these teachers rendered their services more or less on a voluntary basis.

After the introduction of NESP things have changed. Government has fixed pay scales and a few other fringe benefits which are also applicable to the civil service personnel. However, two categories of personnel are employed in the District under NESP. The first category includes the District Education Officer, Supervisor and other administrative support staff. These personnel are all civil servants administered through government rules and regulations. The second category includes school headmasters, teachers and other administrative personnel who are appointed by the DEO on the recommendation of the District Education Service Commission. These personnel are not civil servants since they work under the District Education Committee. The DEC formulates and implements rules on appointment, promotion and the terms and conditions of their service.

At present the salary scales for teachers and headmasters are as shown in Table 15. An important principle of the existing system of remuneration is that a teacher who has more than the minimum qualifications for the level at which he teaches does not receive extra payment accordingly. He is paid only according to the level at which he teaches, and not in relation to the level at which he is qualified to teach. The pros and cons of this system will be discussed in the next chapter.

In any process of educational reform the teacher is the most important factor. If the teacher is skilled, motivated and understands the reform there is a good chance that it will succeed. It seems in Nepal that the motivation and commitment of the teachers generally remain low and their teaching/learning methods, concentrating on reading from the texts and rote memorisation, remain ineffective.

It is appropriate here to discuss the rôle and contribution of the school headmaster. The headmaster plays an important rôle in making the educational programmes of the school successful. Even with the provision of a fine building, adequate educational materials, and a well designed curriculum, if the headmaster is unable to provide educational leadership the school will not function effectively.

Table 15. Salary scales of teachers and headmasters

Primary	Rupees per month
1. Under S.L.C. or equivalent and untrained (Secondary Leaving Certificate)	185 x 4 to 245
2. Under S.L.C. or equivalent but trained	230 x 6 to 350
3. S.L.C. or equivalent and untrained	255 x 6 to 390
4. S.L.C. or equivalent but trained	290 x 7.50 to 440
(Primary headmasters receive an increment of 25 r.p.m. above these scales)	
<u>Lower Secondary</u>	
1. Certificate or equivalent and untrained	370 x 10 to 520
2. Certificate or equivalent but trained	435 x 12 to 675
(Lower secondary headmasters receive a monthly increment of 50 rupees above these scales).	
<u>Secondary</u>	
1. B.A. or equivalent and untrained	600 x 20 to 900
2. B.A. or equivalent but trained	700 x 20 to 1 000
(Assistant secondary headmasters receive an increment of 75 r.p.m. above these scales)	
3. Secondary headmaster	880 x 30 to 1 240

Source: Ministry of Education

The National Education Plan has tried to develop schools on a uniform basis. But there are different types of headmasters in the schools, and not all have been trained and qualified in the same manner. Some headmasters are B.Eds., others are specialists in English, for example. There is no standard and specific qualification required to become a headmaster; nor is the type of training for headmasterhsip prescribed. Any graduate with training in any subject area could now become a headmaster. There is thus no uniformity in the types of qualification and training possessed by headmasters of different schools. Moreover in many instances, apart from the duties associated with their position, headmasters also carry a regular load of classroom teaching. Thus the amount of time they are able to devote to leadership and to effecting improvements in their schools is necessarily limited.

(1) School co-operation committees

There is a school co-operation committee for every school. The chairman of the committee is nominated by the District Education Committee and is usually the chief of the local Panchayat (a political unit). Other members are nominated either by the DEO or the chairman of the DEC. The headmaster is the ex-officio secretary to the committee. The main function of this committee is to ensure support for the school notably through the raising of local contributions, which are indispensable for the running of the school, as a complement to resources provided by the government. Since the introduction of NESP, when the headmasters were made entirely responsible for the administration of the school in accordance with the rules decided by the District Education Office, the school co-operation committees are functioning less effectively because they lack any authority, such as control over payments of teachers' salary or over the transfer of teachers. In this way the headmasters and the teachers are no longer controlled by the school committees. However the government is exploring ways of increasing the authority of the school co-operation committees, to make them active beyond their current primary concern with the provision of physical facilities for the school.

CHAPTER V

EVALUATION OF THE SYSTEM OF ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION

(a) Introduction

In earlier chapters, the treatment has been descriptive. The recent development of education in Nepal was outlined, highlighting some of its special characteristics. Similarly the features of the current teaching/learning process were also described, as were the existing system of educational administration and supervision, and the rôles of its various participants. The objective of this chapter is to make an assessment of the functioning of the administrative and supervisory systems. While these systems are in operation, it is clear that their effectiveness is considerably less than optimal, as indicated by the existing nature of the teaching/learning process and by the failure to carry out qualitative improvements in education to match its quantitative expansion. The high dropout rates found, particularly after the first and fourth grades, are another indication that the system has serious shortcomings.

The reasons for the relative failure of the administrative system, and in particular of supervisory activities, may be found at various points within it, e.g., the regional directorates, the district education offices and committees, and the individual supervisors and schools, not to mention shortcomings at the national level. The basic problem is that the means to operate the system effectively are not provided - supervisors are mostly inexperienced and untrained, and their conditions of service do not offer them sufficient incentives towards self-improvement; District Education Officers are equally untrained and also lacking educational experience; District Education Committees are often ineffective; headmasters are seldom trained to take an active rôle in the betterment of their schools; and the Regional Directorates have not functioned as envisaged. In addition the regulations according to which the system is meant to be operated are often ignored, so that a system which appears reasonable in conception often becomes unreasonable in practice.

This evaluation begins by considering the supervisors themselves, before turning to some of the other actors in the system. It also examines operational factors which are unfavourable to the effectiveness of supervision.

(b) The supervisors

In the following paragraphs the adequacy of the existing supervisory service is assessed both quantitatively and qualitatively, together with consideration of their service conditions and operating procedures.

(1) Staff shortages: At present the supervision system is significantly understaffed, as the following table shows. This problem is most serious among the subject specialists attached to the Regional Directorates and among primary supervisors, in particular in the Central and Far Western regions. In total there were 248 primary supervisors, 113 secondary supervisors and 33 subject specialists in post, against establishments of 327 primary supervisors, 135 secondary supervisors and 60 subject specialists.

Table 16. Supervisors - posts and vacancies, December 1979

Region	Primary posts	Supervisors vacancies	Secondary posts	Supervisors vacancies	Subject posts	Specialists vacancies
East	82	11	31	8	15	9
Central	83	27	33	5	15	6
West	84	11	37	4	15	4
Far West	78	31	34	5	15	8

Source: Curriculum, Textbook and Supervision Development Centre, Kathmandu

The greater numbers of vacancies in the Central and Far Western regions, particularly at the primary level, are due to the greater opportunities of alternative employment in the former case, and to the remoteness of the latter area, which leads people to try to avoid being posted there.

Since the norms laid down per supervisor are 40 primary schools and 20 secondary schools in the terai, and 30 primary schools and 15 secondary schools elsewhere, there is no question that some supervisors are overloaded in terms of the numbers of schools they have to cover. The alternative approach of considering the number of teachers covered by each supervisor leads to a similar conclusion, since the average is about 100 teachers per supervisor at both primary and secondary levels.

Since the supervisor is supposed to visit each school twice a year, and the school year lasts a maximum of 210 days, this implies that he can devote very little time to each teacher, unless he is able to be very active in organising vocation training, which is seldom the case.

(11) Qualifications and experience

A more serious problem than the lack of supervisors is the inadequacy of most of those in post in terms of previous work experience and specialised training. In this respect data were collected on the education and training of all supervisors in post in the Western Region, and on the teaching experience of the supervisors interviewed in the three districts where field work took place.

Table 17. Educational qualifications of primary supervisors, Western Region 1979

Level of qualification	Education	Field of study	
		Sanskrit	Others
Master's degree	-	2	4
Bachelor's degree	11	16	20
Certificate/Intermediate	11	3	5
S.L.C.	-	1	-

Source: Ministry of Education

Since Primary supervisors are supposed to have at least a certificate level of education, it can be said that virtually all those in the Western Region have an adequate formal educational background. But it is notable that less than a third had education as their subject of study, while as many had been trained in Sanskrit. (There has apparently been an excessive production of Sanskrit graduates, whose main employment possibility is as Sanskrit teachers in secondary schools, and so some of the excess has been directed towards jobs in supervision, though they have no obvious qualifications for the work). Most of those trained in other fields had BA degrees.

More serious perhaps is the fact that only 14 out of the 73 primary supervisors in the Region are recorded as having received any in-service training. Unfortunately the nomenclature used in the Ministry data is not very clear, so it is not certain how far this training was relevant to the

job of a primary supervisor, but since some of it was in fields such as secretarial science and vocational agriculture, which are not taught in primary schools, it seems safe to say that hardly any of the supervisors have received training in supervision.

Among the 33 secondary supervisors the educational situation is rather better, since all have education degrees except one education diploma holder and two with degrees in other subjects. But once again there is a wide lack of in-service training, only 6 having benefitted, mostly for periods of three months or less. (It has not been the practice hitherto to provide pre-service training for either primary or secondary supervisors).

It was not possible to obtain equally comprehensive information about the teaching experience of supervisors, but the general opinion within the Ministry of Education is that they are mostly relatively inexperienced in this respect. Among the 14 supervisors who were interviewed in three districts and the Regional Directorate visited during the field work, 4 had no teaching experience whatsoever, and only 2 had taught for more than 5 years. Secondary supervisors face another particular problem, namely, that all the teachers they inspect are specialists in various subjects, so that they are less able to be of help to teachers of those subjects in which they have not specialised. Therefore, it seems probable that most supervisors are both untrained and inexperienced, and also relatively young, having only completed their education comparatively recently. The image of the supervisor as an experienced senior official able to offer wisdom and guidance to the schools does not hold true in Nepal. The recent experience in Nepal as described in various reports and studies bears out this contention, as shown below.

In the initial years of the Education Plan implementation the supervisors appointed were former inspectors and sub-inspectors and some graduates from the College of Education. These supervisors were sent to the field after a one-week orientation session. When deputed to the districts, they were used mostly for official correspondence, collection of statistics, and keeping records of teachers etc., in conjunction with the implementation of the plan. After some months, the workload in the district education office gradually went back to normal. Then the question arose: what to do? Since they knew that their function was to inspect schools, they went out to the schools to carry out traditional type inspection work.

Since the supervisors lacked training in supervision techniques, and the District Education Officers themselves knew little about such techniques, the supervisors began to limit their work to putting their signatures on the pay-roll forms of schools, to trying to improve physical facilities of schools, and to undertaking other tasks as directed by the District Education Officer. There are examples of exemplary work in some districts by the supervisors trained in supervision work and by District Education Officers with leadership qualities. However, most supervisors were found to be so inept as to be ignored even by the junior staff in the District Education Office and they went roaming in the schools without contributing to instructional programmes. This denoted a preference among supervisors to do administrative work rather than undertaking the supervision of schools.

Being under the impression that administrative work was preferable, the supervisors began to meddle with the affairs of the District Education Office. They began to be more actively involved in the transfer of teachers. There literally appeared competition between the regular administrative staff of the District Education Office and the supervisors to carry out various administrative tasks. Cleavage began to be apparent between the District Education Officer and the supervisors. The supervisors began blaming the District Education Officer for not possessing the ability to provide directives. The District Education Officer, on the other hand, began to accuse the supervisors of being good for nothing. The Regional Directorates and the Ministry were more influenced by the District Education Officer's views. Again, the fundamental causes of the inefficiency and inactivity of supervisors were side-tracked.

Gradually, the morale of supervisors suffered further damage. Even the better ones became discouraged. Many factors combined to bring about this situation: lack of training, lack of clear directives from the District Education Officer and lack of proper evaluation of their work. To remedy the situation the Ministry issued a supervision guide and distributed it to the supervisors. But the directives given in the guide were so many and so complex that many supervisors were unable to follow them.

Supervisors lacking teaching experience, and untrained in modern supervision techniques, began to develop feelings of inferiority when they compared themselves to the more experienced teachers of the schools they were supposed to supervise. The situation has so deteriorated that

the supervisor is now regarded as an unwanted government official in the educational structure. In this context, a team of experts, after interviews with the supervisors in the Kathmandu district in the year 1978, produced some pertinent findings regarding causes of supervisor inactivity. These are as follows:¹

(a) In general and with few exceptions, supervisors do not have any enthusiasm for the improvement of the teaching/learning situation in the schools. One reason for this could be lack of knowledge and guidance regarding the work to be accomplished.

(b) Work of the supervisors is mostly unplanned, since the District Education Officer can assign to them any administrative work as he thinks fit. Thus even if supervisors plan their work, it seldom gets implemented.

(c) The supervisors are involved in such administrative tasks as the organization of extra-curricular activities, e.g., essay competition, quiz, flower show competition, scouts and physical exercises etc.

(d) The supervisors have little power to do anything with regard to teachers ignoring their advice and suggestions for improvement. The reports submitted by supervisors are given little attention by the District Education Officer. Consequently, teachers become even more indifferent to the supervisors. This is not just a question facing the supervisors, but a national problem that has blemished the educational scene.

The Mid Term Evaluation of the NESP also expressed dissatisfaction over the supervision system. It indicated the following shortcomings: lack of clear directives from the centre to the supervisors, lack of arrangement for training of supervisors, lack of proper evaluation of supervisors' work, lack of subject supervisors. The evaluation recommended improvements in the above. However, only administrative changes were carried out, and these did not bring about the expected improvements. Thus changes in the number of schools to be covered by each supervisor, or with regard to the system of paying travel allowances, were only administrative expedients which did not go to the root causes of inefficiency. The basic need is to improve the professional competence and ability of the supervisors, and to raise their morale.

1. Nepal, National Education Committee. Report on Supervision, Kathmandu 1978. (in Nepali).

The Report of the Full-term Evaluation of the NESP, 1979, also reached a number of conclusions about the supervision system, on the basis of interviews with all the parties concerned, as follows:

(a) Supervision is an activity to be conducted in schools; the Mid-Term Evaluation stressed the need of strengthening the supervision system. This need is still there. In the present system, the tasks of inspection and supervision have not been clearly specified. The NESP conceived supervision to be an activity conducted with respect to classroom instruction. Close contact with instruction has not been achieved. The improvement of quality required co-operative efforts from all. But today the supervisors alone are held responsible for the failure to realize the objectives of the education plan. If students fail in examinations in large numbers, supervisors are blamed; if many students dropout prematurely, then supervisors are held responsible again; if schools lack physical facilities and furniture, then again it is said to be due to inactivity of the supervisors. The supervisors are thus blamed for all sorts of failures. The administrative and educational leadership in the school is provided by the headmaster. Similarly the responsibility for all education activity at the district level is that of the District Education Officer. Yet, the three - the supervisor, the headmaster, and the District Education Officer have not been able to act in concert.

(b) It is apparent that there is a shortage of personnel with specialist knowledge of supervision techniques and able to provide leadership to the supervisor, at the central level.

(c) There is as yet no provision of refresher training for the subject specialists stationed in the Regional Directorates. They have thus not developed self confidence in their work.

(d) The task of organizing seminars/workshops for subject teachers is certainly not that of the district supervisors. It is that of the regional level specialists.

(e) Subjects and ideas discussed in the seminars/workshops have to be implemented in the school. The school is thus the real work place of the supervisors. Their work is not only that of saying if the ideas are to be implemented or not, but also to see that they are put into practice. Supervision is an activity that is continued over time.

The supervisor has to infuse new ideas in the teaching/learning process. These may come from the specialist during seminar sessions, or may be evolved from the use of local materials. The introduction of such new ideas is not accomplished by a single supervision visit. It will require repeated visits and observation to see the status and effectiveness of projects started earlier. When supervision is aimed at looking into the effectiveness of an on-going project it becomes more challenging. This will require the supervisor to be in close touch with the classroom situation, which affords him opportunity to be in contact with both the teachers and the students.

(f) Inspection of physical facilities: The state of affairs regarding adequacy of physical facilities is conveyed to the District Education Officer by the headmaster. It is the task of the headmaster to see that the school has adequate physical facilities, and also to see that they are well maintained. The supervisor can, however, assist by suggesting means of better utilization of the facilities and their maintenance and care.

(g) Administrative inspection: This task belongs to the District Education Officer. It would be better not to involve the district supervisor in this work.

(h) The supervision guides and directives given in the supplementary supervision guide are not clear enough. These have rarely been executed in the districts.

The foregoing conclusions and comments drawn from various sources show graphically the shortcomings and difficulties of supervisors, stemming at least in part from their own lack of the necessary qualifications and experience. But other considerations are also relevant, as may be seen from the discussion in the following sections.

(iii) Service conditions

When the present arrangements for educational supervision were set up under the National Education System Plan in 1971, the conditions of service established for supervisors were relatively favourable in relation to those of teachers. But subsequently teachers have received significant improvements in service conditions, particularly with regard to the level of their salaries. Currently, therefore, the salary levels of primary supervisors are equivalent to those of trained lower secondary

schoolteachers, while secondary supervisors are on the lower part of the same scale as trained secondary school teachers. (see Tables 14 and 15). It can be said, therefore, that experienced secondary teachers and headmasters have no financial incentive to become supervisors, especially when one takes into consideration some other aspects of the supervisor's conditions of service.

Since supervisors are supposed to spend most of their time in visits to schools, involving extended travel within the district, they receive a field allowance equivalent to one third of their base salary, i.e., 143 Rs. per month (about US\$ 12.00) for primary supervisors and 233 Rs. per month for secondary supervisors. This allowance is seen by other government officials as a major service advantage of supervisors. Yet it has to be seen in context. To be eligible to receive the allowance the supervisors are obliged, according to a regulation established some years ago, to spend 25 days in each calendar month visiting schools, 12 months of the year. Since the school year is normally of only 210 days' duration, the regulation obviously cannot be enforced realistically, but it is within the discretion of District Education Officers to withhold payment of the whole of the allowance for any month in which supervisors do not fulfil their 25 day quota of visits. For a primary supervisor, the allowance amounts to less than 6 Rps. per day, which is equivalent to the price of a good meal in wayside foodshops. Other Ministry of Education officials of the same rank receive a daily allowance of 18 Rps. when they are obliged to travel away from their duty station. Thus although supervisors are the envy of other government officials in this respect, they themselves feel victimised and claim to be out of pocket.

Hitherto supervisors have received no assistance in other respects towards the carrying out of their work. They are not given any transport, though in the terai bicycles would be useful and in many other areas horses would help. However, District Education Officers are usually provided with a means of transport, though they travel less. In short, supervisors spend an undue amount of time in the task of walking to the next school. Recently UNICEF has begun to distribute sleeping bags to supervisors, though this distribution process appears not to have got beyond the Regional Directorate so far. Otherwise supervisors have to provide their own equipment (rucksacks, footwear, torchlight, etc.) or

else depend on the schools for hospitality. Since in many areas there is no kind of lodging available, and even food may be scarce, the supervisors are often obliged to rely on the schools. This puts them in an invidious position vis-a-vis those they are supervising, and gives the teachers a ground to see their visits as a burden.

The career prospects of supervisors are limited. A primary supervisor can become a secondary supervisor if he has the appropriate qualifications, though in the past it has been the practice to appoint secondary supervisors from among graduate secondary teachers or those with education diplomas. The main barrier to promotion for supervisors is the fact that their posts are classified as technical, whereas most of the posts of District Education Officers and their assistants, and other ministry posts, are classified as administrative, and there is no direct path between the two categories. Instead 25 per cent of vacant administrative posts are open to technical staff, provided they pass the same examination as other applicants. In other words, only a few supervisors have the opportunity to move from the technical to the administrative branch, where promotion prospects are much better. At present there is no provision for supervisors to go back to teaching, where they would have better earning prospects. The general lack of promotion opportunities for supervisors or at least the hindrances placed in their way, must be considered as currently a deterrent to recruitment.

It is the normal practice for supervisors to be posted away from their areas of origin, and to be subject to transfer at fairly frequent intervals, often less than the two or three years which would be desirable from a pedagogical point of view. Since the government does not provide any assistance with housing, it is exceptional for a supervisor to take his family with him to his various posts. Even if he did, the amount of travelling that he is expected to do would leave him with a minimal domestic life.

In short, the present conditions of service and way of life of supervisors have the effect of making them isolated figures, supposed to move almost continuously from school to school, frequently living on the charity or generosity of others, largely cut off from their families, and with little prospect of self-improvement.

(iv) Professional support

Supervisors are supposed to receive regularly from the central and regional levels information on new methods and ideas in both the administrative and pedagogical fields, e.g. the Curriculum, Textbook and Supervision Development Centre in Kathmandu prepares a quarterly information bulletin for circulation to supervisors. The intention, of course, is that supervisors should disseminate the information thus received to the schools in their care.

But in practice this system appears not to work. One of the commonest complaints among the supervisors interviewed was that they were not provided with such types of information, and so were unable to be abreast of new developments in the educational system. It was claimed on several occasions that District Education Officers withhold such information from the supervisors working under them.

Another specific complaint of supervisors in this context is that although UNICEF provides radio to some schools to take advantage of school broadcasting, the same facility has never been extended to supervisors, who are thereby once again cut off from another channel of information, and at a potential disadvantage in relation to the teachers they are supposed to supervise.

Because of the isolation in which they generally operate, most supervisors have no access to library or documentation facilities. Nor do they have much opportunity of study leave, or until now of in-service training. Thus the supervisor's exposure to new thinking is minimal and he frequently feels himself isolated and without support.

(v) Conception of the supervisor's rôle

There is a widespread sentiment that the regulations setting out the responsibilities and duties of the supervisors (see Chapter 4) provide only a general statement of their task, so that their rôle remains lacking in definition. This might be adequate for highly trained and motivated groups of officials, and assuming that District Education Officers, headmasters and teachers all play their respective rôles in a positive fashion. Unfortunately none of these conditions obtains, so that the regulations are inadequate in practice. In particular, since no instruments of enforcement are provided for any of the actions that supervisors are supposed to initiate, they have no administrative authority, and hence no capacity to implement their own recommendations.

(c) District Education Officers

A key position in the administrative structure of the Nepalese educational system is that of the District Education Officer. He is the most senior official who is in regular contact with the local schools, and as such should be the main interpreter of ministerial instructions for implementation at the institutional level. Moreover, in his position as ex-officio secretary of the District Education Committee and the District Education Service Commission, he is in a position to influence local lay opinion on educational matters, and hence the decisions taken by these bodies.

In view of these considerations it is therefore all the more strange that the majority of District Education Officers are neither educators nor educational administrators by background, and frequently have little or no previous experience in the educational system. For the most part they are members of the Nepal Administrative Service, that is, general administrators who may be posted in almost any part of the government, e.g., one of the District Education Officers interviewed during the field work for the study had previously been serving as a revenue collection officer in another district.

The oddity of this situation is compounded because there is another section of the civil service known as the Nepal Education Service, but this is classified as a technical rather than an administrative group, and its members are limited to posts in fields which are particular to education, e.g., educational testing and measurement, supervision, audio-visual activities, subject specialists.

The District Education Officer is also the official to whom the supervisors in the district are in the first instance responsible. He is supposed to guide them in their functions and is also the initial recipient of their reports and recommendations. It is also within his power to delegate part of his responsibilities to the supervisors, though this is apparently seldom done, and conversely he is supposed to consider their advice in many of his actions, e.g., for the appointment and transfer of teachers, though this too is alleged to happen only rarely.

Given the personal deficiencies and lack of support of most supervisors, it is particularly unfortunate that they are under the

authority usually of someone with even less technical and professional experience of education than themselves. Though there is supposed to be a close working relationship between District Education Officers and Supervisors, in practice the relationship usually seems to be bad, and each side blames the other for the deficiency. The District Education Officers complain of the poor qualifications and ineptitude of many supervisors, whom they consider to have no clear conception of the rôle of supervision, though in view of the lack of professional qualification among DEOs there seems to be no prima facie reason why their conception should be any clearer. It is also complained that some supervisors are too authoritarian in their attitude to teachers, an instance perhaps of the use of bluster to conceal ignorance. Yet this too may in some instances be condoned, given the opposition of some teachers to the very idea of supervision, the abolition of which has been called for by them as a strike demand. Nevertheless, District Education Officers are frequently correct to draw attention to the inadequate performance of supervisors, though as we have seen many factors may be mentioned which help to account for this. The question which may then be asked is why the DEOs do not attempt to do more to improve the capacity of their supervisors, and here perhaps their own lack of professional background is a barrier, together with the weaknesses in their own position referred to below.

Conversely, supervisors make many complaints about the activities, or inactivity, of District Education Officers. They claim that the DEOs seldom understand and appreciate the significance of the supervisor's task. Therefore, it is alleged, the DEOs do not consult the supervisors as often as they should about professional matters, e.g., supervisors are not asked to give advice on the promotions and transfer of teachers in schools they supervise. The main concern of the DEOs according to this view, is that the supervisors should spend the required number of days out of the District Education Office, should visit the required number of schools and submit the necessary number of reports, the objective being the presentation of a tidy set of records, as evidence that the office and its ancillary services are running smoothly. The content of the reports submitted, and what took place during the supervisory visits, are thus claimed to be of less concern than the evidence of apparent

activity, so that the reports are often not acted upon. As was mentioned earlier, DEOs often fail to pass on to supervisors circulars from the central and regional administrations, which then cannot in turn be notified to the schools. A particular problem is that supervisors usually have little or no office space allotted to them in the District Education Office, so that the record keeping aspect of their work is made more difficult. Similarly, such tasks as the organisation of training activities are thereby also harder to arrange. Supervisors also complain that since DEOs incorrectly ignore them in taking personnel decisions concerning teachers, when problems arise in schools, as a result, the supervisors are called on to go to the schools to deal with them. The rôle of the supervisor thus becomes a trouble-shooting one, removed from the positive conception it should have as an agency of improvement.

Even after the realization of the ineffectiveness of the District Education Officers, the ministry did not take any concrete measures to provide introductory training for these posts. At times seminars and conferences of District Education Officers were organized at the regional level under the sponsorship of the Regional Directorates. But these conferences and seminars could not meet the specific skill needs of the District Education Officers. No difference in their work efficiency could be observed after their attendance at such seminars and conferences.

The short (one-week) induction provided to officials transferred from other ministries and departments was inadequate to prepare them for the educational leadership rôle they had to assume in the districts. This could be guessed immediately. These officials were familiar only with the administrative procedures as practised in the offices they came from, and were completely ignorant of the complex educational problems in the districts, and therefore unable to tackle such problems. They were primarily involved in administrative matters, and in transfer/promotion of teachers, while the important functions of improving the quality of education, providing guidance and directives to supervisors, and assuming educational leadership remained unattended to.

Together these allegations add up to a far-reaching indictment of District Education Officers, if it is assumed that the DEO, in his capacity as the senior local education official, has a relatively free

hand in implementing educational policies at the local level. But this is seldom the case, because the DEO, like the supervisors, is an itinerant official with no local connections, being reposted from district to district at regular and sometimes frequent, intervals. Conversely the membership of the District Education Committee, though whom the DEO has to work, are normally local figures, like the majority of the teachers. Thus the teachers, in particular those who are more active politically, may have political or personal links, circumventing the DEO and supervisors, to the politically connected members of the District Education Committee. These latter, being part of the political hierarchy governing the country, albeit at a relatively low level, may have further links to national political figures, who can if need be exert pressure at the national level of administration to influence lower level administrative decisions. Thus the District Education Officer, although nominally a relatively free agent of the administration, in fact must function in a network of administrative and political pressures which may seriously curb his freedom of action. It is in this light that the District Education Officer's rôle towards the supervisors must be evaluated. Also to be borne in mind is his predominantly administrative outlook, based on his own experience, and possibly also training.

This analysis of the situation suggests that there should be forces pushing the DEOs and supervisors to work together, as a local element of the educational administrative machine trying to operate and improve the educational system. The fact that this frequently does not happen, and that DEOs and supervisors often appear to be out of step with one another, and even in active opposition, suggests that the external forces, often of a political nature, weighing on the DEO, are sometimes of sufficient force to make him place political and administrative considerations above educational ones in carrying out his rôle. When it is further considered that neither supervisors nor District Education Officers are well-trained for their respective positions, and that the former have little incentive or encouragement to make a success of their work, while the latter have the prospect of moving into other areas of administration, it is clear that many of the conditions for a successful working relationship are not present.

(d) The District Education Committees

The Committee is the managing authority for schools in the district. As conceived under the National Education System Plan it was also to have a planning rôle, in particular for making recommendations to the Regional Directorate on the opening of new schools within the district in the light of overall district needs and the disposition of existing schools. To finance its work the Committee receives government grants, and also puts a 5 per cent levy on the income of each school.

There is widespread dissatisfaction with the work of the Committees, which are generally considered slow to act and ineffective. The principal causes ascribed to this situation are their limited resources and their composition.

The Committees are supposed to receive 5 per cent of the income of each school as part of their funding. But as most schools, particularly those at the secondary level where income-earning possibilities could normally be expected to be greater, exist in a state of perpetual deficit, the Committees in turn are short of operating funds.

Apart from the Chairman, Vice-Chairman and Secretary who are ex-officio, the members of the District Education Committees are nominated, two by the Regional Director of Education, one by the Zonal Commissioner, one by the Committee's Chairman and one by the District Education Officer.

The Chairman of the Committee is the Chairman of the District Panchayat, the Vice-Chairman is the Chief District Officer - the senior government official at the District level, and the Secretary is the District Education Officer. Through his right to nominate one other Committee member, the District Education Officer is able to ensure that one other person with work experience in education joins the Committee. Similarly it might be expected that the Regional Director of Education would apply such a criterion in those nominations he makes, but in only one instance was this observed to be the case. In the districts visited in conjunction with the study, the membership of District Education Committees was composed predominantly of local political figures or landowners, a doctor and an ex-serviceman. However worthy and interested these people may be, they come to the post without previous professional experience of education, so that their capacity to be effective must be open to question.

The Report of the Mid-term Evaluation of the NESP made the following recommendation, based on a study of the proceedings of a number of District Education Committees:

"Since the District Education Committees are found to be involved in administrative matters only, it is essential to make these committees realize the need to devote attention to the formulation of district level plans, the execution of educational programmes, evaluation of these programmes, and the provision of local resources. Additional resources will be made available to those committees seen to be active in these directions."

The above recommendation was not of any importance in helping the District Education Officers in accomplishing their responsibility for promoting education. The basic causes for this are:

(a) Most of the District Education Committee members are too busy with their own affairs to take a keen interest in educational matters. For instance the Chief District Officers and the Presidents of District Panchayats are very busy people. They are unable to spare even the time for educational matters discussed in the committees and often they just approve whatever the District Education Officers propose. The Chief District Officer is concerned only with maintaining political balance, and he often chooses to leave the technical matters relating to education to the District Education Officer. He is little concerned with other matters. Thus only if the District Education Officer has technical competence and administrative ability can something positive be expected to result. The experience of many districts shows that the contribution made by District Education Committees is insignificant.

(b) It has also been noted in some districts that even when members do devote time to educational matters, they are often overshadowed by the District Education Officer, so that they are unable to make any tangible contribution.

(c) The Regional Directorates should have provided directives to the District Education Offices with regard to implementation of policies. So far such directives have been rare. The Regional Directorates are also like the District Education Officers, mainly involved in daily administration.

In fact the Committees are widely criticized as being ineffective and slow, and it must be suspected that nominations to their membership are more often used as a way of paying off political debts or of establishing political obligations, the members using their positions to gain

prestige rather than to serve education. At least this is the common complaint of local education officials. Although an active DEO can to some extent overcome this situation, he can be blocked by the network of political links referred to earlier, and even the Chief District Officer, the other official who is an ex-officio Committee member, may be more of a rival than an ally. (Although the CDO takes precedence, he has the same rank as the DEO within the official hierarchy).

Thus if the DEO is to make an effective tool for planning and implementation out of the District Education Committee, he requires a political sensitivity and an ability to guide the thinking of his nominal superiors who may be both uninformed about education and unsophisticated in their thinking. This is a considerable demand to make on an official who himself may be inexperienced in the educational field, and another potential source of weakness in the existing structure of educational administration and supervision.

(e) School Co-operation Committees

The tradition of community involvement in education in Nepal has been manifested particularly through the School Co-operation Committees. However the National Education System Plan made no mention of these Committees, and in effect super-imposed on them the District Education Committees, which took over some of their activities, in particular with regard to the selection and control of teachers.

Inevitably in this situation the enthusiasm in many School Co-operation Committees had declined, and this has coincided with the growth in the burden of educational provision at the community level, as more children are sent to school and remain enrolled for longer periods, necessitating enlarged school facilities. Simultaneously the stagnation in rural incomes has made it progressively more difficult to raise additional money from the members of the community for investment in education.

During the course of interviews with members of School Co-operation Committees in the three districts visited, it was repeatedly stated that while there continues to be popular support for education, and members of the community remain willing to donate their labour for the construction and maintenance of school facilities, there is decreasing willingness to provide financial support. In this situation it is not

surprising to find that the physical condition of many schools leaves much to be desired, and that the local community is unable to respond effectively to the continuing pressures for growth, even though most of the Committee members interviewed expressed concern primarily with the erection and maintenance of facilities.

In another respect also the effectiveness of the School Co-operation Committees may increasingly be called into question. The Secretary of the Committee is nearly always a local teacher, but the membership consists predominantly of local farmers or traders, the majority of whom are likely to be illiterate, and hence to have had no first-hand experience of education. Given these circumstances it may be questioned how far they are capable of appreciating the requirements of an increasingly diverse and complex educational system, and making realistic contributions towards their attainment.

A review is desirable of the respective rôles of the educational administration and the School Co-operation Committee at the level of the individual school, to see what might be the most useful and feasible activities of the latter in the changing context of education. This would be a possible means of revitalising the Committees and restoring them to their former level of activity, though with some change of direction as thought appropriate.

(f) Headmasters

Although the functions of the headmaster have been laid down in the Education Code, as is the case with the supervisors their rôle continues to be a somewhat undefined one. Moreover the NESP makes no detailed mention of the special task of the headmaster, other than a passing reference to his need of training. It is normal practice for the headmaster to be responsible for one of the classes of the school, just like his colleagues, and in such a situation the amount of attention he can devote to the overall running of the school is clearly limited.

This situation arises because, to take only the situation in the primary schools, although each school is supposed to have an academic staff of four, which would allow for one class teacher in each of the three primary grades plus a headmaster, in practice there is an average of only 2.5 academic staff per primary school. Thus the shortage of teachers compels most headmasters to devote themselves to class teaching,

whereas the under-qualification of many teachers makes it highly desirable that the headmaster should rather be a support to them, taking steps to build up their teaching proficiency within the school.

Out of 53 headmasters interviewed in the three districts visited, only 2 had received any special training before becoming headmasters, while 25 claimed to have had some sort of training subsequently. All of those interviewed stated that they were working as class teachers as well. Only 21 claimed to spend more than 10 per cent of their time in providing guidance to the teachers in their charge, and only 29 claimed to observe the conduct of classes in their schools on a regular basis. Moreover, only 4 of those headmasters interviewed held staff meetings on a weekly basis, with another 26 doing so monthly. In other words, in some 40 per cent of the schools visited, staff meetings are a rare event.

It has also been observed that some headmasters pay particular attention to their own subject of specialization at the cost of the all-round development of the school.

These findings suggest that many headmasters have only a limited conception of their rôle as an educational leader in the school, and a force for qualitative improvement. No doubt many of those interviewed are too burdened by their classroom teaching load and routine administration to be very active in a wider leadership rôle in relation to the improvement of the teaching/learning process. But a few exceptional schools were observed where the headmaster was clearly making an effort to draw the best performance from each teacher.

The situation appears to be most serious at the primary level, where the needs are greatest, given the limited qualifications and lack of training of most teachers. It is here in particular that there is a need to develop the dual conception of the headmaster as an agent of the supervisor and the supervisor as the support of the headmaster in the effort to improve the learning environment in the school. The present shortcomings on the supervisory side of such a relationship have already been referred to, but it is clear that further action is also needed to improve the capacity and effectiveness of headmasters, and in this context both pre-service and in-service training programmes could have a rôle to play. Recommendations to this effect are made in a subsequent chapter dealing with ways to improve the existing system of administration and supervision of education.

(g) Teachers

There is widespread dissatisfaction with the performance of teachers and conversely teachers themselves evince considerable discontent, as manifested by unpunctuality and absence, and more seriously by repeated strikes, despite recent efforts to improve their service conditions, in particular through significant pay increases. In part the unrest among teachers may be put down to their frequent involvement in contemporary political issues, but deeper and more long-lasting factors are also influential. Among these may be mentioned their adverse perception of differences between their own terms of service and those of government officials, and the fact that many teachers, particularly the younger and untrained ones, have little commitment to a career in teaching - they are teachers because they could not find any other work, or until they find a job they prefer. Another consideration which influences discontent among teachers, especially the better educated ones, is the remoteness of an increasing number of schools from the traditional centres of education and culture.

Before the implementation of the education plan, schools were financed by government grants and school fees. The deficits were met by the efforts of the school management committees. Thus the headmasters and teachers tried their best to increase the number of students and to satisfy the management committee. Thus, the teachers were forced to raise the quality of instruction in order to attract more students to the school. The possibility of dismissal for poor performance made the teachers alert, and made them pay attention to their teaching. But after the NESP, the salaries of the teachers were guaranteed by the District Education Committee. Not only the amount of salary increased, but the certainty of getting it at fixed times was assured.

The appointment of teachers was made by the District Education Service Commission. This enhanced the status of teachers and provided security of tenure. But all this had a negative effect on school administration. The teachers now paid little heed to the school co-operation committee. Several headmasters began to display bureaucratic tendencies. The teachers became more concerned with facilities than with the work in the school. After the teachers were found to be teaching without adequate preparation, the students lost faith in them and their respect declined. This culminated in all-round indiscipline

in the school, and the standard of education went down significantly. Because of the deterioration in school administration, and growing indiscipline in schools, the District Education Offices became more involved in tackling disciplinary problems than in raising the standard of education. This led to further and widespread worsening of the educational situation in the country.

(i) Conditions of service: Although, as was noted earlier, the better educated teachers are at least as well remunerated as supervisors, it is only secondary headmasters who receive the same salary scale as District Education Officers or Under Secretaries in the Ministry of Education. Moreover teachers would normally reach these salary levels at a later stage of their careers than the corresponding officials, so that the latter have a prospect of further advancement which is denied to teachers unless they are able to transfer to the administration.

In other respects too, officials have service advantages over teachers. While both are now entitled to pensions, officials leaving after 5 years' receive a lump sum payment, whereas teachers have to complete ten years' service before being eligible for such an entitlement. The retirement age is 60 for officials, but 65 for teachers. Also assistance with medical expenses is available to officials and their nearest relatives, but there is no corresponding provision for teaching staff.

Thus in a number of ways teachers, who constitute the largest body of educated manpower in the country, see themselves as discriminated against in relation to the service conditions accorded to officials of the government.

(ii) Lack of commitment to teaching: The Nepalese education system has for some time been caught in the trap of having too many students in the Humanities and related fields, and a dearth in some other areas, e.g., mathematics and some scientific subjects. This problem tends to be self-perpetuating and even self-reinforcing, because it leads to a difficulty in recruiting mathematics and science teachers, which in turn tends to curb the future enrolment of students in these fields. Related to this is the situation where an excess of humanities graduates pours on to the labour market, and many of them end up as teachers for lack of any alternative job. Moreover, despite crash programmes to increase

the number of trained teachers through in-service courses, the rapid expansion of education has meant that the number of untrained teachers has continued to increase - from 1973 to 1978 the number of untrained primary teachers increased from 13,000 to 15,000, over 60 per cent of the total primary teaching force in the latter year. At the lower secondary level the situation is even worse, the number of untrained teachers having increased from 2,500 to 5,500 during the same period. Thus there is a growing problem of untrained and unmotivated teachers in the system.

This is further exacerbated as education spreads into the more remote areas and the schools there expand above the primary level. As a result an increasing number of teachers, particularly the newer recruits, are sent to remoter locations where there is more likely to be a dearth of sufficiently educated local people able to be recruited as teachers. Then there is the risk that their sense of alienation from teaching is again increased by their isolation, and in this situation, supervisors, however well qualified and motivated themselves, which they are usually not, will face an uphill task in stimulating the commitment and enthusiasm of such teachers.

(h) The Regional Directorate

The regional level of the educational administrative structure is relevant to the effectiveness of supervision activities in two ways, namely through the existence of a team of regional subject specialists, and through the administrative rôle of the Regional Directorate, to which District Education Officers report.

There is generally expressed dissatisfaction with the rôle of the subject specialists, which they themselves share. In the first place, this is because hitherto the specialists have not been used as intended, but instead were confined to the specific task of overseeing the introduction of vocational subjects into secondary and lower secondary schools. Although they are required to be graduates, the specialists mostly have little or no teaching experience or relevant specialised training. Since many of the teachers of vocational subjects are equally untrained, the introduction of the vocational curriculum thus risks becoming a case of "the blind leading the blind". The subject specialists also lack any clear job description or any channel of promotion. Resources to carry out their

work are also lacking, e.g., for visiting the many schools in the 15 to 20 districts comprising a region, so that they tend to be reduced to trying to organise vacation training courses for teachers, though they themselves are untrained for this specific task. In practice there is little or no co-ordination between the district level supervisors of secondary and lower secondary schools, and the regional level subject specialists. Finally it must be noted that about half of the posts for subject specialists remain vacant on a national scale, though the situation is worst in the Eastern and Far Western regions.

The Regional Directorates of Education are supposed to be the main implementing agencies for educational plans and policies. As such the District Education Officers are answerable to them, as are ultimately the district supervisors. The effectiveness of the Directorates has been limited both by staff shortages and the difficulties of travel to and communication with some of the remoter districts. A less easily eradicable factor limiting their effectiveness derives from the diverse influences on the District Education Officers, who while seeking to obey their nominal superiors at the regional level, must also be receptive to the local political milieu in which they operate, as pointed out earlier. This may create a situation of some division of loyalties at the district level, risking impairing the efficiency of efforts to implement educational policies. In particular, because of the weaknesses of the subject specialists, and the limited possibilities for direct contact at the district level, it is safe to say that the regional authorities have not been able to be effective in their intended rôle of evaluating the district-level supervisors.

(1) The operational context of supervision activities

The previous sections of this chapter have in turn analysed the shortcomings of various parties having a rôle to play in the process of supervision. Besides the adverse effects of these factors on the efficiency of supervision, there are some more generally pervasive influences within the educational system which are also inimical to the work of supervisors, and these are considered here as aspects of the operational context within which they have to function.

As was indicated earlier, the District Education Offices are the main implementing agencies for the recent reform and expansion of the education system. With the continuation of this process their workload has increased considerably, in particular due to the additional administrative burden resulting from expansion. However, the resources of the Offices have not been increased in terms of staff, and they frequently suffer from staff shortages, particularly of accountants. Their efficiency is further impaired by the frequent transfers of staff between districts. One result of this situation is that supervisors frequently have to share in the burden of administrative work, in particular during their visits to schools, which further impairs their already limited ability to concentrate on their main objective of improving the performance of teachers.

It is normal practice that each supervisor within the district is allocated a group of neighbouring schools to supervise. Given the difficulty of communication in most parts of the country, this practice makes obvious sense, since it reduces somewhat the amount of strenuous travelling the supervisor must undertake in order to visit "his" schools. But most District Education Officers have adopted the further practice of rotating the district supervisors to a different group of schools every 6 or 12 months. This is said to be done to prevent the supervisors becoming too much under the influence of the teachers, which explanation if true is only a reflection of the lack of standing and authority of most supervisors with those they are meant to supervise. However valid this reasoning may be locally, it is from a pedagogical point of view disastrous, since it means that no supervisor can ever effectively follow up the actions he initiates in a particular school, which in turn reduces his incentive to achieve improvements of teachers and schools in his temporary care.

As has been the case in many other countries, the Nepalese educational system has become increasingly exam-oriented. A principal aim of pupils and their parents at each stage of the educational system is to pass the final exam leading to qualification to enter the next stage. Since internal assessment has been progressively subordinated to examination success as the criterion for advancement, students have tended to neglect any part of their studies not directly related to the content of examinations. This situation has been exacerbated recently because the practice has been initiated of permitting almost 100 per cent of those passing the School Leaving Certificate examination at the end of secondary school to

enter the university. This has resulted in a rapid growth of student numbers, in response to which entry to the easier humanities subjects, where incidentally unit costs are also lower, has been allowed to expand in an uncontrolled way, although in relation to the satisfaction of manpower needs for national development such a step is unlikely to be justified. Such developments tend to devalue the significance of the educational system as an agency for the production of human resources, or even of responsible citizens¹, which in turn makes more difficult the job of teachers, supervisors and administrators.

Although the Education Regulations lay down norms for the operation of schools, e.g., in relation to matters such as the recommended class size, in practice these are often ignored. This type of practice fosters a climate of irresponsibility in the operation of the educational system, which further complicates the work of the supervisors. A further instance of this is in relation to the transfer and promotion of teachers, where the advice of the supervisors is often either not sought or ignored, though it is supposed to be taken into consideration.

The prevailing system of remuneration of teachers in Nepal also has adverse implications for the goals of the supervisors. At present for each level of educational qualification there are two salary scales, according to whether or not the teacher has been trained. In addition the educational qualifications required of teachers at each level of the educational system are stipulated as follows - School Leaving Certificate for primary teachers, Certificate level (i.e, 2 years' post-secondary education) for lower-secondary teachers and Bachelors degree for secondary teachers. Teachers are paid, however, not for the qualification they hold, but for the qualifications required for the level at which they teach, i.e., teachers with more than the minimum required qualifications receive no financial recognition for their extra years of study. Thus a teacher with a degree who is teaching in a lower-secondary school will receive only the salary paid to teachers with a Certificate, giving him every incentive to obtain a teaching post in a secondary school where he can be paid according to his educational level. The implication of this system is that the more ambitious teachers who wish to improve their educational qualifications will also strive to move up the educational system to obtain financial recognition

1. See Ministry of Education, National Education System Plan, 1971-76, Kathmandu, 1971 p.8.

for their efforts. The lower levels of the system, and in particular the primary level, will tend to be left with the least educated and less ambitious teachers. The career prospects of primary teachers in particular are thus limited unless they move out of primary teaching. This implies that the primary supervisors are likely to have to deal with a more frustrated and less motivated group of teachers, while as has been seen these supervisors are the least qualified to deal with such a situation.

(j) Conclusion

A basic cause of the shortcomings of the supervisory rôle in the current educational situation in Nepal derives from the inadequacies of the supervisors themselves. There is significant understaffing, but more serious are the inappropriate or poor qualifications and in particular the lack of teaching experience and specific training of many of the incumbents. Unfortunately the service conditions currently offered to supervisors are not good enough to attract better qualified applicants for posts in supervision. Experienced teachers find it economically more attractive, and less strenuous, to remain in teaching or to seek administrative posts.

As the foregoing sections of this chapter have shown, there are many aspects of the current operation of the mechanisms for supervision and administration which are inimical to their effectiveness. Many of these bad aspects are mutually reinforcing in their adverse effects on the system, e.g., the inadequacies of untrained supervisors are worsened by the shortcomings of District Education Officers with no background in education, who are therefore unable to provide suitable leadership. Another instance of this phenomenon of the reinforcement of adverse effects is the inferior conditions of service and career prospects of supervisors as compared with senior teachers, making the supervisors a despised group and also making it difficult to recruit better-qualified entrants. On the basis of the earlier analysis of the current situation, the following chapter will outline a series of measures to improve the effectiveness of supervision. It must be stressed here that the conception of the supervision process held in Nepal is not under serious question. The guidelines laid down for supervisors seem generally sensible, though in need of further elaboration and detail. What is problematic is the extent of the failure of the system to function as conceived, which

implies serious shortcomings in the creation of the conditions and climate for its successful functioning. Thus the following chapter will be concerned primarily with proposals to create a set of operating conditions within which effective supervision can take place. Of necessity, many of these proposals will relate not to the supervisors or the supervision process themselves, but to the other actors in the system, or to the general conditions within which the educational system functions.

CHAPTER VI

MEASURES TO IMPROVE THE EFFECTIVENESS OF SUPERVISION

(a) Introduction

There exists the framework of a system of supervision in the Nepalese educational system - a number of supervisors are in post, and regulations have been laid down to govern their activities, including the establishment of reporting channels. But as has been shown earlier, the supervisory mechanism is not working well. In part this is because of faults in the mechanism, but at least as important are the difficulties deriving from the unco-operative attitudes or positions adopted by other participants in the supervision process, e.g., teachers and District Education Officers. Thus the suggestions for remedial measures which follow relate not only to the supervisors themselves and the regulations governing their conduct, but also to the other actors in the supervision process. It is suggested that only by appropriate action in all of these directions can the conditions for effective supervision, leading to an improved and more efficient educational system, be created.

In the proposals that follow, therefore, we begin with suggestions relating to other agents within the educational system, viz. teachers, headmasters, administrators, and the community, on the grounds that only if some appreciable changes are made in these areas is there the possibility that proposed revisions of the supervision system will be able to have the desired effect.

(b) Teachers

Too many teachers continue to be under-educated, untrained and unmotivated to perform their duties well. In several respects this situation has been exacerbated since the period of implementation of the National Education System Plan.

With the implementation of the Plan, the rôle of teachers in the operation of schools was reduced in some respects.¹ Prior to 1971 most schools were operated as an independent venture by the community, with the local social leaders and the teachers taking joint decisions on matters affecting the school's programme. This gave the teachers an authority in school operation while at the same time they were subject to the control

1. Shrestha K.N. Instructional Improvement in Secondary Schools Kathmandu, Institute of Education, Occasional Paper pp.6-7 1978.

of the community in respect of their own conduct, i.e., the community was in effect their employer. From 1971 onwards the progressive elaboration of centrally-controlled machineries for the local supervision and administration of schools, with officials appointed for these purposes, upset the old local relationships, and in particular subordinated the teachers to greater bureaucratic authority. The local community was also somewhat alienated in the process, because its rôle was reduced to that of providing continuing economic support for the school, with no control over the teachers.

At the same time, the reform instigated under the Plan paved the way for a rapid expansion of education, with a considerable increase in the number of teachers. Inevitably, given the previous limited development of education, many of these new recruits to teaching were both under-qualified and untrained. To overcome the lack of training, the government introduced a variety of in-service training programmes, but because of the limitations of government resources in relation to the scale of the need for training, the approach followed was that of providing a minimum of training to the maximum number. Adopted for reasons of economy this proved to be an expensive policy in practice for two reasons - while under training the teachers continued to receive their full salary, and on completion of what was often in reality only a partial training they were classified as trained teachers and moved to a higher pay scale. Moreover, it can be questioned how far the minimal nature of the training provided succeeded in producing a much better teacher in many instances.

By comparison, pre-service training of teachers remains relatively undeveloped - in 1976 only one-third of teacher trainees were pre-service. There are formidable objections to pre-service training in a tight resource situation - it takes longer, there is a higher wastage rate - but it is questionable whether it is more expensive in the long run, and undoubtedly the product is a better-trained teacher.

The other problem in the existing situation of teachers is that, as explained earlier, they have a system of remuneration which pre-disposes them to seek to move to higher levels of the educational system. They are encouraged to improve their own qualifications, but only reap a financial benefit from this effort if they then move upwards to teach at the level of the educational system where their new qualification is

an entry requirement for teachers. As a result lower levels of the system tend to be impoverished, as their better qualified teachers move upwards.

To remedy these various adverse effects of the National Education System Plan on teachers, a number of policies may be proposed, as follows:

(1) Incorporation of teachers into the public service

The possibility should be examined of bringing the teachers within the Public Service. This need not involve a salary increase as such, because the existing salaries of teachers are already equivalent to various salary scales for civil servants. But if such a step is taken to imply that the government should take over responsibility for 100 per cent of the remuneration of lower secondary and secondary teachers, instead of 75 per cent and 50 per cent responsibility respectively as is the case at present, then there would of course be a significant increase in government expenditure on education. Conversely this would considerably ease the financial burden on schools, enabling them to make their envisaged contribution to the finances of District Education Committees, and also permitting them to devote more resources to improving the school in other directions. In the long run such a step would be a further financial burden on government as teachers benefitted from the other service advantages now available for civil servants, e.g., in respect of study leave, paid sick leave, medical care, insurance benefit, ration allowance, etc. The potential advantage of such a step for the government is that it should, by giving teachers the status and responsibilities of civil servants, lead to an increase in their sense of responsibility, and also give the government some means of controlling their conduct, both within and outside the classroom, through application of the civil service regulations, and the possibility of using the sanctions they contain. This recommendation would also facilitate the development of a career path for dedicated and experienced teachers into the ranks of the supervisors, since all would then be part of the civil service cadre.

(11) Changes in the system of remunerating teachers

Without changing in any way the existing scales of remuneration of teachers, the principle on which the remuneration is based should be changed from that of relating it to the teaching position held to that of basing it on the formal qualifications of the teacher. The advantages

of this step would be that it would prevent the lower levels of the education system from being denuded of their better qualified and more ambitious teachers, as tends to happen at present, and also would give teachers more incentive to upgrade themselves, since they would no longer have to wait for transfer to a new job before benefitting from their efforts. Moreover this step could help to create the possibility of establishing a career path for the better educated in primary teaching, which does not exist at present. Such a step would increase the costs of teachers' remuneration, particularly at the primary level, to the extent that teachers with more than the required minimum qualifications are currently teaching in each level of the educational system. Against this must be set the expected benefit of creating a better educated and more satisfied teaching force, in particular in primary schools where the need is greatest.

(iii) Teacher-training programmes

There should be greater emphasis on pre-service as opposed to in-service training in the production of teachers. With the increases in outputs from higher levels of the education system, and the decline in alternative job opportunities, there should be a growing possibility of attracting new graduates (School Leaving Certificate and above) into courses of teacher-training. In this context it should also be easier to encourage students to take up those subjects where teachers are currently in short supply, e.g. Maths. Science and English, since it would be possible to give them remedial training in these subjects during their pre-service teacher-training courses. The fully-trained teachers produced under this approach would hopefully integrate better into a system of regular updating through an integrated system of supervision and vacation training, always presupposing that during their pre-service training they had been inculcated with the idea that teaching is a continuously evolving activity, so that no-one is ever a fully and finally trained teacher. If this approach is adopted, then in time some of the existing in-service training programmes could be progressively phased out, assuming that the future rate of expansion of educational enrolments is somewhat slower than it has been in the recent past.

(iv) Material support for teachers

Much more effort is needed to provide teachers with the material means with which to do their work - classroom furniture, teaching aids, curriculum guides, a room for teachers where they can carry out lesson preparation and marking, etc. To the extent that the government may decide to take over from lower secondary and secondary schools the burden of paying part of their teachers' salaries, then these schools could be in a better situation to devote part of their resources to improving the facilities available to their teachers. However, the Government would still have to take on the burden of such improvements in primary schools. As an illustration of what is involved, it may be noted that out of 52 classes observed in three districts, in conjunction with this study, 15 had no table and chair for the teacher, and no fewer than 47 had no cupboard in which the teacher could keep teaching aids. In most schools there is only a small office for the headmaster, into which the rest of the teaching staff crowd whenever the occasion demands, and where supplies have to be kept, usually in very inadequate circumstances. It is very seldom that a permanent display of teaching aids is to be seen in a classroom. In this connection it is also desirable that teacher-training curricula should include teaching trainees how to construct and make use of their own teaching aids.

(v) The community rôle of the teacher

The conception of the school as an active and leading agency in the development of the community needs to be fostered vigorously, with the teachers playing a dynamic rôle under the guidance of the headmaster. One aspect of this, though not the only one, is that the school may be linked to the local development of non-formal education. The object of such a step would be to develop the practical rôle of the teacher in the community, as opposed to his political rôle. To encourage such a development, appropriate changes would be needed in the content of teacher-training courses. By making the teacher a community development resource person, his stature in the community should be increased, hopefully resulting in an increase in his commitment to teaching. If it is also possible to make some appropriate recompense for the additional activity on the part of the teacher, the prospect of this step having the desired results should be enhanced.

(c) Headmasters

In practice almost all headmasters in Nepal appear to be regular class teachers in the first instance, so that the duties specific to their rôle as headmaster necessarily take second place. This is not the intended situation, but it has hitherto been unavoidable, given the inability of the recruitment of teachers to keep pace with the expansion of education. Moreover, due to the dispersed nature of the rural population and the lack of any means of transport to expand the catchment area, most rural schools in particular are small single-stream institutions where it would be hard to justify the presence of a full-time member of the staff with no teaching duties.

Therefore there is the need to develop a conception of the headmaster as a part-teacher, part-school manager, whose job is to run the school as an institution and community agency, to oversee and stimulate the performance of the other teachers, and also to carry a certain teaching load. In one-teacher schools, whose incidence is likely to increase as education spreads to the remotest areas and most isolated communities, the teacher will have to incorporate all these rôles and also be responsible for all the teaching. Under such a conception of the headmaster's rôle there would be a need for several types of training to make him effective in carrying out his multiple functions. Assuming that the headmaster is a trained teacher, which at present is usually though not invariably the case, then several other types of training which would be of benefit to a dynamic, innovatory, local educational leader can be identified. These are (i) training in school management, including financial management, (ii) training in educational leadership, in particular how to guide and inspire under-qualified teachers to make efforts towards self-improvement, and (iii) training in how to use the school as a leading institution for the development of the community. Ideally these three aspects of training should be combined into a single training programme for headmasters, completion of which should be a compulsory requirement for those teachers appointed as headmasters before they take up their new positions. It should also be the policy for all existing headmasters to progressively receive the same multi-faceted training. Since such a programme is a potential area of international assistance, the details of the proposal could well be worked out in collaboration with prospective donors.

The possible content of such a training programme has recently been set out in detail¹, distinguishing between the management, public relations and pedagogical aspects.

(1) Management aspect

School administration

- Maintenance of discipline among teachers, school staff and students, promotion of high ideals and manners among them.
- Inspection and maintenance of classroom and facilities, and framing and implementation of daily routine.
- Keeping records of important events, and of personnel, including personnel files on teachers.
- Construction of necessary buildings, classrooms, playgrounds, and libraries.
- approving teacher and staff appointments, promotion, transfer etc., and making temporary appointment for 3 months.
- Executing directives from higher authorities.

Accounts

- Preparing annual budget of the school, spending money as approved by the District Education Committee, keeping proper accounts, and having the accounts audited.
- Preparing payroll for all teachers and staff.
- Spending up to the following limit if the budget is delayed and obtaining the approval of the District Education Committee later on:
 - up to Rs. 500 in the case of a secondary school
 - up to Rs. 300 in the case of a lower secondary school
 - up to Rs. 150 in the case of a primary school.
- Spending double the above amounts if the school is a boarding school.

Planning

Preparing the annual school programme, getting it approved by the school co-operation committee and implementing it. Preparing monthly, quarterly, and half yearly and yearly progress reports on the evaluation of progress made.

1. Nepal, Central Region Directorate of Education. A Glimpse of Educational Administration. Kathmandu, May 1979. (in Nepali).

(ii) Public relations skills and leadership

- Promoting favourable attitudes towards the school by interacting with teachers, staff, students and parents.
- Organizing and promoting school - community relationships by the exchange of ideas with community representatives, arranging parents' day, school anniversary, cultural programme and extra curricula activities, and arranging publicity on the progress made by the school.

The headmaster's rôle as an intermediary between the students and teachers, between the school and the society, between the school co-operation committee and other assisting agencies, and between the school and the District Education Office is of crucial importance in getting the school programmes implemented and ensuring the progress of the school. It is thus necessary for him to maintain cordial relationships with students, teachers, parents, school staff, personnel of the District Education Office, and community members. One important medium of communicating with the parents is providing them with regular progress reports on the students.

(iii) Pedagogical aspect

- Assigning students to particular grades after due testing of their preparedness for a particular grade.
- Exchanging views with teachers on subject teaching.
- Observing classes
- Correcting examinations
- Certifying students, and giving transfer certificates
- Conducting regular conferences with teachers on the progress of instruction, physical and academic condition of students, and training needs for teachers.
- Maintaining records of progress in instruction.

Hopefully headmasters will continue to undertake a limited amount of classroom teaching, if only to keep them in touch with the activity in which they are supposed to provide guidance to their subordinates, and also with the students. It would also be desirable that well-trained headmasters should continue occasionally to attend short vacation seminars of a refresher nature, which could also be a means of introducing new ideas to the participants. The following should contribute to the content and conduct of such seminars.

- (a) Specialists in all secondary school subjects - English, Nepali, Maths, Science, Social studies, Health, Sports, Vocational subjects.
- (b) Experts in school administration, accounts, planning, general administration.
- (c) Curriculum specialists, textbook specialists.
- (d) Librarians, hostel management experts, architects and engineers.

If this multiple conception of the headmaster's rôle is accepted and applied, then the development of a closer working relationship between effective supervisors and headmasters can be foreseen, with the headmasters implementing the counsels of the supervisors while, at the same time, being able to demand their active co-operation in achieving the goals of the school.

A related step which could also be taken with a view to increasing the involvement and activity of headmasters would be to increase their pay differentials over other teachers, which are currently 25 Rs. per month at the primary level and 50 Rs. per month at the lower secondary level. In secondary schools there is a special salary scale for headmasters, and it would be preferable to introduce a similar system at the other levels of the system for those headmasters who have completed the proposed training. This would of course be a cost-raising step, but not a very significant one, and the increased commitment and leadership it would hopefully engender would be a justification.

(d) District Education Officers

As the lynch-pin of the existing system of educational administration, the District Education Officer (DEO) is a particularly important figure, who is in a position virtually to "make or break" efforts to improve the effectiveness of the supervisory system. The surprising situation whereby many DEOs are neither career educational officials nor trained in educational administration has already been remarked upon. It is all too possible that the DEO is thus a weak link rather than a lynch-pin.

In this situation two types of proposals may be made, one of a general nature and one more specific in character. The general proposal is that the present situation whereby educational administrators, supervisors and teachers are all in mutually exclusive job categories,

with little or no possibility of transfer, varying career prospects and in the case of teachers, inferior conditions of service, should be brought to an end by the creation of a unified educational service. The desirability of assimilating teachers into the public service has already been mentioned. The further proposal now being made is that beyond this the existing distinction between administrative and technical posts in education should be done away with, together with the barriers to promotion and transfer that it creates. (This distinction may originally have been a clear one, but as further posts have subsequently been created and allocated to one or the other category, it has become increasingly blurred, so that for example a Regional Director's post may be either administrative or technical, apparently depending on whether the incumbent initially entered the administrative or the technical side of the service. Now it would appear to be difficult to give a clear and concise explanation of the principles on which posts are designated either technical or administrative).

The creation of a unified educational service would permit the establishment of multiple career paths, such that teachers could move into supervision or administration, or vice versa. Such a procedure deserves encouragement in that it would broaden the experience of those moving up to senior positions, and hopefully would create a greater and wider understanding of the particular difficulties and requirements of the supervisory, teaching and administrative rôles, in place of the mutual incomprehension and lack of trust which all too often seems to prevail at the moment. In particular, such a unificatory step would be a potentially valuable aid to creating an image of the educational system as a common enterprise to which all its participants could make their specific contributions as a means to the realisation of universally applicable goals. At present, the various actors in the system too often tend to see the others as threats or obstacles to their own specific objectives.

If something similar to the present administrative structure of education is to be retained in the future then, following the creation of the proposed unified educational service, it would be a useful further step if new appointees to the DEO and Assistant DEO levels were required to have some previous service in both supervisory and teaching rôles. The creation of a unified educational service offering career opportunities

through movement between the teaching, supervisory and administrative paths implies some changes in the existing structure of salaries, which is as follows (monthly salaries in Nepalese Rupees):

Table 18. Comparative salary scales 1978-79

Primary Supervisor	435 x 12 to 555 and 550 x 15 to 700
Secondary Supervisor	700 x 15 to 850
DEO and ADEO	880 x 30 to 1 240
Secondary Headmaster	880 x 30 to 1 240
Lower Secondary Headmaster	485 x 12 to 725
Secondary Teacher (trained BA)	700 x 20 to 1 000

(The various allowances such as field allowances for supervisors and remote area allowances for teachers are excluded from the above comparison).

Assuming that it is wished to retain the existing structure of teachers' salaries (though with the modified principle of payment suggested earlier), and that the salaries of DEOs are also not be changed, since any upward change would also require increases in the more senior ranks of the administration to which DEOs salaries are related and to which they may aim to be promoted, then the only area of possible change would be that of supervisors' salaries. At present secondary supervisors' posts are unattractive to trained and experienced secondary teachers or headmasters, as are primary supervisors' posts to lower secondary headmasters or trained teachers.

If, as has been proposed and is discussed below, the distinction between primary and secondary supervisors at the district level is to be done away with and there is to be only a single supervisory category, then in order to attract well-qualified teachers to supervisory work the salary level should be pitched within a range such as 800 x 25 to 1,100 Rs. per month. At this level the posts should be financially attractive to experienced secondary teachers, particularly if it is not obligatory to make appointments at the bottom of the scale. Also it would be financially attractive to supervisors to move on after a number of years to posts as secondary headmasters or ADEOs or DEOs, again assuming that they could be appointed at intermediate points on the scale, and that the existing barriers to transfer had been broken down.

Of course such a proposal implies a significant increase in the cost of supervisory services, but this is inevitable if the job is to be attractive to suitably qualified and moreover experienced entrants. Unless this additional cost can be borne all other efforts to improve the supervisory system are likely to lead to nothing, because of the basic inadequacies of most existing supervisors, many of whom could be re-absorbed into teaching if the above proposals are accepted.

A further specific step is needed if DEOs are to become more effective local leaders of the educational system, and that is the provision of specialised training. For those current DEOs without previous experience in education, this training should be comprehensive and largely remedial in character, while for future DEOs with experience in teaching and supervision, something narrower might be adequate. For the first group the content of training ought to include the objectives of the educational system, the structure of educational administration, the rôle of the school in the rural community, the contribution of the community to education (District Education Committee, etc.), educational planning and management (including educational costs and financing), the rôles of supervisors and headmasters in improving the quality of education and teacher performance. Future DEOs with an educational background should need a less comprehensive training, but with greater focus on the practices of educational administration, planning and management, including office management. The duration of training for the first group, given the wide range of subject areas, might well need to be as long as three months, and the training should not be limited to formal lecture sessions, but might also include group assignments, preparation of an individual project, rôle-playing and similar activities. For the second group a shorter training period, six weeks or two months, can be envisaged. This type of training is another area where external financing might be involved in the development of a detailed project.

(e) The local community

As has been noted earlier, the rôle of the local community in education, as manifested through the School Co-operation Committees, has changed somewhat under the provisions of the National Education System Plan. Initially the Committees were wholly responsible for the school - it could be legitimately described as the community's school. But

under the Plan this situation was diluted in various ways, in particular through the creation of systems of local administration and supervision which took over much of the responsibility of the operation of the school, most importantly by removing the appointment and control of the teachers from the community. As a result the schools came to be seen as belonging to the government, and no longer the community's responsibility, so that manifest community support has in many instances declined.

This decline has been due not only to the causes described above but also to the growing local burden of education, deriving from its continuing expansion, both in existing schools and in remoter and frequently poorer areas. As the growth of rural incomes has in general not kept pace with the increase in educational costs, this has meant a decline in the local economic capacity to support education. Thus the endemic inequality of support for local schools which was a function of differing local interest in education, differing local income levels, and the extent of philanthropic enthusiasm, has tended to be reinforced by underlying economic trends.

This is the basic ground on which reliance on local financial support for the development of education may be criticised - it tends to perpetuate inequality, and unfairly penalises those children from poorer communities. In addition, it is pointed out that most rural adults have little or no personal experience of formal education - the great majority are illiterate. Therefore the basis on which they can be allowed responsibility for the operation of the local school is further open to question. Conversely it is the repeatedly expressed policy of government to increase community involvement in education, while simultaneously wishing to improve the effectiveness of supervision and local administration. On the face of it, these two desires on the part of government are potentially conflicting, since a more active administration could be expected to infringe on the traditional areas of community activity.

The need is therefore clear for a redefinition of the rôle of the community in the school, taking into account both the importance of local support in the isolated locations which are so prevalent in Nepal, and the official desire to increase the effectiveness of supervision and administration with a view to improving the quality of education and

extending the community rôle of the school. Another significant factor to be considered in this context is the growing stress on the provision of non-formal education in rural areas, for which the local school can be an important agency of implementation and support.

The members of School Co-operation Committees frequently express a nostalgia to return to the earlier situation where they controlled the appointment and behaviour of teachers, but this rôle could be better performed by an improved administrative and supervisory system, geared to the progressive development of teaching competence, something which the Committee members are clearly not equipped to achieve. Instead the Committee's rôle could better be focussed on (a) providing support to the headmaster in his efforts to increase the school's rôle in the community, e.g., through student work in village projects, or the provision of health and literacy classes for village adults; (b) giving encouragement to community members to provide material support to the school, e.g., raw materials and labour for school repairs and additional equipment, assistance in the provision of facilities for the teachers, sports facilities, etc., (c) facilitating the availability of other community resources to the school, e.g., the arranging of school visits to nearby places of interest, encouraging local resource persons to provide supplementary instruction in the school, permitting local farms to be used for agricultural education and cottage industries for exposure to vocational activities; (d) where necessary, encouraging local acceptance of teachers from outside as members of the community. In view of the emphasis on extending educational opportunities to girls, it would also be desirable for it to become normal practice to appoint women as members of School Co-operation Committees.

The conception of the School Co-operation Committee thus proposed is one of a supportive entity, geared to helping the headmaster in his efforts to improve the quality of the school and its contribution to the well-being of the local community, while on the other hand mobilising the resources of the community in support of the school. Thus while the school should be seen as a facility for the benefit of the community, the management and running of the school, in particular its pedagogical aspects, would be the responsibility of the headmaster, supported by the machinery of supervision and educational administration at the district level.

To assist in the effective development of this conception of the rôle of the School Co-operation Committee, it would be useful to run short training courses for the Chairmen of the Committees. This could best be done at the district level, as a co-operative effort between the DEO and the supervisors. In view of the illiteracy of many of the potential trainees, it could best take the form of a short series of seminars covering the various aspects of the Committees' rôle expounded above.

Since the local Panchayat is a highly organized political unit and each Panchayat employs permanent administrative personnel, auditing and other administrative work related to the school's relationship with the population might be transferred to the Panchayat. It is likely that the Panchayat can assist the community rôle of the school, in particular its contribution to non-formal education i.e., spread of literacy and functional adult education programmes.

(f) The supervisors at the district level

The current supervisors are ineffective for a number of reasons - they lack the stature to earn the respect of those they supervise, they are mostly not trained for their work, they do not have the material means to do the job, they frequently lack the co-operation of other educational officials to which they should normally be entitled, there is an unreasonably onerous requirement for them to spend time visiting schools to the virtual exclusion of other forms of activity, their career prospects are minimal. This is not an exhaustive list, but it indicates the depth and variety of the problems facing supervisors, which need to be resolved if supervision is to become an effective force in the improvement of the teaching/learning process. In the following paragraphs suggestions are made for actions to be taken towards this goal.

(1) A single level of supervisor

The existing system of having different categories of supervisors for different levels of the education system is of dubious value for several reasons. In the first place, it is clear from the evidence offered in earlier chapters that the primary supervisors in particular are poorly qualified and at a disadvantage with many teachers. Another problem arises from a peculiarity of the Nepalese educational system. Although the school system is divided into three levels - primary, lower secondary and secondary - the individual institutions often incorporate

more than one level, e.g., secondary schools frequently include the lower secondary grades, and sometimes also the primary grades, while many schools designated as lower secondary also have primary grades.¹ In addition of course there are many primary schools limited to three grades, though a number of others in the process of growing into lower secondary schools may currently have four or five grades while still called primary schools. The particular problem arises with those secondary and lower secondary institutions which also contain primary grades. In the normal course of events, these schools are visited by secondary supervisors, but it is not clear that they also inspect the primary grades, so that it appears that a part of the primary level never gets supervised at all. Finally, given the difficult nature of travel in most parts of Nepal, it seems a prodigal use of scarce supervisory manpower to have two supervisors travelling over the same terrain to visit different levels of institutions.

Therefore it is suggested that the existing supervisory system should be changed to one where a single supervisor should be responsible for all the educational institutions in one part of a district. This implies that there should be only one category of supervisor, competent to supervise all three levels of the school system. It was suggested earlier that to attract people with sufficient teaching experience into the supervisory service, it would be necessary to establish a salary scale for supervisors in the range from 800 to 1,100 Rs. per month. This would make the posts financially attractive to all levels of teachers, even possibly some secondary headmasters.

If this recommendation is implemented, then the following two considerations should continually be borne in mind: (a) The supervisor needs to be in close contact with the District Education Office to obtain information on new policies and programmes, and for solving problems in consultation with the District Education Officer. He has also to communicate the particular problems of schools to the District Education Office. (b) Again, the District Education Officer should see that the supervisors posted in their respective supervision areas

1. If for statistical purposes the different levels of a multi-level school are designated as separate schools, then it becomes difficult to know the number of locations in which schools exist.

do not proceed along divergent lines of action. In other words the activities of supervisors should be co-ordinated by the District Education Officer and uniformity maintained among them.

(ii) Reducing the onerous nature of supervision work

The strenuous nature of current supervisory work makes it unattractive to older and more experienced teachers. Several steps towards reducing the onerous nature of supervision can be suggested. Wherever possible, means of transport should be provided to the supervisor, be it bicycles in the terai, or horses in the hills. This would in turn facilitate the carrying of a minimum of equipment for overnight visits, e.g., sleeping bags, cooking utensils and food, and it should be the rule in future to provide such equipment. Finally the amount of travel could be somewhat reduced if in future supervisors were required to reside in the immediate locality of the group of schools for which they are responsible, instead of at the district headquarters as at present. If this approach is followed, along with the other suggestions made earlier, then it becomes questionable whether there is any longer the need to maintain the present system of paying field allowances to supervisors on a monthly basis. Instead they might be paid a daily travelling allowance for every night they have to spend away from home, against the production of the appropriate receipts (if they have to stay in a school because of a lack of local lodging houses, they should pay the school for this in the same way).

(iii) Supervisor-school and supervisor-teacher ratios

The present system whereby each supervisor is supposed to be responsible for a fixed number of schools, varying according to the educational level and the nature of the terrain, should be changed to one where the ratio to be established is that between the supervisor and a given number of teachers. This is proposed because the fundamental objective of supervision is to improve the performance of the teachers, so a decision is needed as to how many teachers a qualified supervisor can effectively supervise. On this basis it should then be the responsibility of the District Education Officer to decide the locations of the supervisors and which schools should come under each one's responsibility, taking account of the number of teachers in each school, the nature of

the terrain and distances between schools. In this way the DEO will be able to divide his district up into supervision areas, each with its resident supervisor. Thus an average national supervisor/teacher ratio could be fixed on the basis of the existing number of supervisory posts, or of a reduced number if the proposed increase in individual remuneration is not to be reflected in an increase in the total cost of supervision services. But if primary is to be given to pedagogical considerations, then on the above proposed basis, it is likely that the number of supervisory posts would increase somewhat and continue increasing with the further expansion of education.

(iv) Training for supervisors

The current lack of training of most supervisors has been indicated. At present there are two institutions which provide some in-service training possibilities for supervisors - the Institute of Education of Tribhuvan University and the Curriculum, Textbook and Supervision Development Centre of the Ministry of Education. There is currently no pre-service training activity specifically for supervisors.

Two approaches to the training of supervisors may be distinguished, which might be called respectively the "skill" approach and the "subject" approach.¹ By the "skill" approach is meant a method of training in which basic attention is given to the various skills needed by the supervisor in his work, e.g., in community relations, institutional management, leadership, pedagogy (including preparation of materials), evaluation and planning at the local level. This should be built around a core study of the rôle of the supervisor in the educational system. In contrast to this, the "subject" approach focuses on teaching the supervisor to supervise a particular subject in the curriculum, including vocational subjects. If in future supervisors are to be drawn from among experienced teachers, the "skill" training can most usefully be given as a pre-service exercise, though it need not be exclusively this. On the other hand in this context "subject" training can better be conceived as taking place on an in-service basis, for the purpose of deepening the competence of serving supervisors, who may attend several such training sessions in different subjects at different times. Of course

1. In this context see Berger G., For a New Approach to the Problem of Training of Inspectors, Paris, Unesco 30.12.77 (ED-77/WS/151) and the references therein.

these two approaches to the training of supervisors need not be mutually exclusive, and neither does there have to be a hard-and-fast rule as to which should be pre-service and which in-service.

It should also be pointed out that the conception of the district level supervision system set out above is built around general supervisors, and not subject specialists, so that in-service training done on a subject basis would be intended to broaden the competence of supervisors and not to make them narrow specialists. If the supervisors are experienced teachers, they should in any case be reasonably competent to supervise the subject or subjects they previously taught, and training in further subjects would thus broaden their capacity. Since it is to be anticipated, at least initially, under this conception of the supervision system, that the majority of supervisors would come from a background of secondary school teaching, it would be desirable to provide an introduction to the primary curriculum and the special problems of primary education as part of their pre-service training. The current antipathy to pre-service training of supervisors, presumably on the ground that since most of them have little or no teaching background prior to appointment they need some work experience to enable them to benefit from training, would not be valid for the future supervisors with an extensive teaching background, who would also have experience as recipients of supervision.

In the light of the foregoing remarks the main content areas of supervisory training under the suggested revised system may therefore be proposed as follows, with the reservation that these proposals are both tentative and non-exclusive:

Pre-service training

- (i) Objectives of the education system and the rôle of supervision
- (ii) Leadership, community relations and local level planning
- (iii) Evaluation techniques and procedures
- (iv) School management
- (v) Pedagogy, including preparation of teaching materials from local resources
- (vi) (Optional) The curriculum and special problems of primary education
- (vii) Supervision practice (attachment to a serving supervisor)

In-service training

For each subject in the curriculum:

- (i) Curriculum content
- (ii) Methodology
- (iii) Materials
- (iv) Evaluation and supervisory methods
- (v) Relation to other subjects in the curriculum

As to the duration of training, a six-week period of pre-service training might be suggested, consisting of four weeks of lectures, seminars and discussion of experiences, and possibly including simulation and rôle playing, and two weeks of supervision practice. This represents perhaps the minimum duration desirable for pre-service training. For in-service training courses in the supervision of particular subjects, a duration of two weeks in each instance can be suggested.

(v) Professional contacts

In order to maintain and further strengthen the professional capacity of supervisors other steps may also be suggested, e.g., short attachments of less experienced supervisors to some of their most effective colleagues for periods of observation and learning through the exchange of ideas, and vacation visits to campuses of the Institute of Education and other centres of learning to permit familiarisation with the latest professional literature. Ideally such visits should be structured and overseen by the campus staff. In addition the existing effort of the Curriculum, Text-book and Supervision Development Centre to send quarterly information bulletins to supervisors should be further encouraged - at present it appears that some supervisors in the field do not receive these bulletins.

(vi) Activity of supervisors in non-formal education

Lastly, the rôle of district supervisors should be expanded in the direction of increasing their concern with non-formal education, both because of the growing attention being given to this area, and also because of its close relation to an increased community rôle for the formal school. Additional training of supervisors in this area is also likely to be a necessity. At present, although district supervisors are nominally responsible also for non-formal education, in practice they mostly appear not to be active in this direction.

(g) Regional level subject specialists

It is widely accepted that these specialists have been relatively unsuccessful in the specific task allotted to them, namely the promotion of vocational studies at the secondary level. The reasons for this shortcoming were indicated in the previous chapter, the principal ones being their lack of appropriate experience, and the high rate of vacancies for this type of post.

Under the revised system of supervision now being proposed, a rôle for a regional-level team of subject supervisors can still be foreseen, but only on satisfaction of the pre-condition that they are selected from very capable teachers or even headmasters, with a considerable depth of experience in the subject they are to supervise. This implies in turn that they should be paid at a rate corresponding to the upper part of the proposed salary scale for supervisors (800-1,100 Rs. per month), or even that an additional and higher scale should be introduced for this group. The rôle proposed consists of four distinct elements and relates to all subjects in the curriculum and all levels of the educational system:

(i) To organise vacation courses for teachers in the improved teaching of specific subjects. While such courses could be organised at the regional headquarters, or at a campus of the Institute of Education, it will facilitate the transport problems of the trainees if they are organised on a district basis (i.e., for the teachers of a given district), normally at the district headquarters. Such courses would normally be run by individual subject specialists, and a suitable duration might be two weeks, so that conceivably the specialist could teach the same course in several districts consecutively, in particular during the long summer vacation.

(ii) Subject training for district supervisors, also preferably to be given during the vacations, but in this case at the regional headquarters or Institute of Education campus. The training burden might also be shared with the staffs of such centres.

(iii) During term-time, apart from preparing for their training activities in the vacation, an important potential rôle of the subject specialists, acting as a team, could be to make special visits to "problem" schools, perhaps for as long as a week, for an in-depth

examination of their difficulties, the provision of detailed assistance to the headmaster and teachers, and the proposal of a co-ordinated set of remedial actions. Ideally the local District Education Officer and supervisor should initiate and also participate in such visits, and then maintain a watching brief to ensure the compliance of the institution and where necessary the local community.

(iv) Inspection and assessment of the district-level supervisors. This might be done by an individual subject specialist on an annual basis, and it should be carried out during term-time, to permit observation of the supervisors' work in the schools. Reports should be made to the regional directorate in the first instance, but copies sent to the District Education Officer.

In developing this conception of the future rôle of subject specialists at the regional level, it must be reiterated that the conception can only be valid if the personnel selected for these positions have the requisite qualifications and teaching experience, to enable them to provide the necessary guidance and leadership to both teachers and district supervisors.

(h) Conclusion

The many recommendations contained in the foregoing paragraphs together make up a co-ordinated pattern of actions to improve the functioning of the educational system at the local level, and in turn to create the operational conditions whereby supervisors can play their desired rôle of improving the teaching/learning process and hence raising the quality of education in the schools. It is inevitable that implementation of the proposals will increase expenditure on education, but this is unavoidable if it is sought to increase the benefits produced by the system. At present some part of the money spent on education may be thought of as ineffective, in view of the poor results produced, so that it can be argued that the increased expenditure should produce a more than proportionate return (though not one that is readily measurable), if it leads to the improvements in the quality of instruction and learning that are anticipated.

CHAPTER VII
CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY

In the last decade the Nepalese educational system has undergone far-reaching structural changes, which have had important implications for its growth, both quantitative and qualitative.

Before the introduction of the NESP in 1971 the system was relatively small, and remarkable for the limited extent of government involvement. To a significant degree the system had developed up to that point as a result of community self-help efforts. The NESP represented an attempt by government to universalize the educational system, while at the same time introducing many changes in its structure, content, and administration - in short, a comprehensive reform effort.

In 1980, four years after the completion of the initial implementation of the reform, it is possible to evaluate its effects, identify some of its shortcomings, and suggest some of the remedies needed. This study has attempted to undertake these tasks, in relation to one important activity in the educational system, namely supervision. But in the process of carrying out the study it became clear that, although its initial focus was relatively narrow, it had wide ramifications for the rest of the system - indeed some of the key conclusions of the study do not relate to the supervisors at all, but rather to those with whom they must work most closely. Thus it can be argued that this study is also to some extent an evaluation of the educational reforms set out in the NESP.

The achievements of the educational system in Nepal under the aegis of the NESP have been clearly demonstrated, as have many of the problems created by a period of very rapid development. Many suggestions have been made for actions which would seek to remedy some of the existing shortcomings, and these are briefly re-stated below.

One of the most serious problems caused by the NESP has been the loss of the former spirit of community involvement in education. This is a pervasive and far-reaching influence on the recent development of education, which is hard to delineate because of its dispersed impact, manifested primarily at the level of individual schools, and only gradually becoming apparent. But the old limited system in which this spirit flourished is gone, replaced by a much larger and more ambitious educational system, striving against the constraints of resource availability, and pushed from below by

the impulses for continuing growth which it has created. In this situation the authorities will have to find a new context in which to revive community involvement in and support for education, perhaps in a different way making education an agency of local development through greater adult participation.

The main recommendations of the study are as follows :

1. Teachers should be incorporated into the civil service structure, which by improving their conditions of service and subjecting ^{them} to the employment regulations of the public service would hopefully improve their commitment to teaching. It would also facilitate their access to careers in supervision and administration.
2. The system of remunerating teachers should be altered so that it relates not to the position they hold, but to their level of qualifications. In this way it is hoped to reduce the drain of better-qualified teachers from primary teaching.
3. Greater emphasis should be put on pre-service rather than in-service teacher-training.
4. More material support should be provided to teachers to improve the conditions in which they work and to facilitate their efforts to provide a better atmosphere for learning.
5. As the community rôle of the school is increased, so should the teacher become a more important figure in the community, hopefully increasing his commitment to teaching in the process.
6. Headmasters should receive a comprehensive pre-service training for their role, covering the management, public relations and pedagogical aspects of their tasks. In this way the achievement of a close working relationship between headmasters and supervisors should be facilitated.
7. In future District Education Officers should receive a specialized training before appointment, while those of the present incumbents without previous experience in education should receive a remedial training.
8. A unified educational service should be established within the civil service, permitting the interchange of personnel between teaching, administration and supervision rôles, thus both enhancing their career prospects and also increasing the possible breadth of experience they can bring to their new positions.

9. The rôle of the local community in the schools must be modified to reflect changing circumstances. They should (a) give greater support to the headmaster, (b) encourage their own members to provide material support to the school, (c) facilitate the availability of community resources to the school, (d) encourage local acceptance of teachers from elsewhere as members of the community, (e) ways should be sought of making greater use of the resources of the local panchayat in the school.
10. There should be a single level of district supervisor, responsible for all schools in a part of the district.
11. Efforts should be made to reduce the onerous nature of supervision work, e.g., by providing more material support for the supervisors and by facilitating their residence in the area for which they are responsible.
12. The number of schools to be covered by each supervisor should be decided by the District Education Officer in the light of local circumstances.
13. Both pre-service and in-service training for supervisors should be further developed, in terms of both improvement of their professional skills and deepening of their knowledge of the curriculum.
14. Provision of facilities for professional contacts by supervisors is necessary, including the possibility of initial attachment of new supervisors to more experienced colleagues.
15. Supervisors should also be active in relation to non-formal education.
16. A new salary scale for the proposed supervisors is necessary, designed to be attractive to experienced and senior teachers.
17. Regional subject specialists should (a) be responsible for vacation courses for teachers, (b) give subject training to district supervisors, (c) act as a team to make in-depth studies of the difficulties of 'problem' schools, and to devise remedies, (d) carry out assessment of district supervisors.

The general objective of these proposals is to facilitate the movement of the Nepalese educational system towards a more professional rôle, where the main concern is with the ongoing expansion, development and improvement of existing services, rather than with the opening of new facilities as has been the case hitherto. Of course new schools will still be opened in Nepal, but with the continuing growth of the system this will become a proportionately less important aspect of its development, and attention will turn increasingly to the maintenance and improvement of established facilities. In this sense it can be said that the system is entering on a new phase in

its growth, and the above recommendations are intended to facilitate this process.

It may be questioned whether the experience of Nepal, given the singular operating conditions described in the Introduction to the study, has any relevance for other countries. Yet many of the problems faced by Nepal are also found elsewhere. Perhaps the single most important lesson to be learnt in the general context of educational development is of the need not to lose the enthusiasm of the community for participation in education. Nepal has risked doing this, but still has the possibility to retrieve the situation.

With respect to the supervision of education, the most important point is the need to evaluate the provision of this vital educational service in its broad operational context. It is not just the content of the job which must be considered in evaluating the work of the supervisors, but also their general conditions of service, and their own image of their position. At the risk of sounding trite, it may be said that only a happy supervisor will be effective in stimulating improved performances from the teachers in the schools. While it is inevitable that improvements in the quality of education will cost more money, an effective supervision system can be an excellent means of ensuring that maximum value is obtained from the innovations introduced. This in itself justifies additional expenditure on supervision services.

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APPENDIX

In September 1980, following the completion of the draft research report, the Nepalese authorities introduced changes in both the structure of education and the system of educational administration and management. As yet these changes have only been announced in broad outline, so that no detailed assessment of their likely impact can be undertaken, but they are recorded here to provide an additional dimension to the findings of the report.

The structural change involves an extension of the duration of primary education to 5 years, with a corresponding reduction of lower secondary education to two years, secondary education remaining unchanged. In other words the previous 3-4-3 structure has been replaced by a 5-2-3 structure. During the current academic year this change is being implemented in 15 out of the 75 districts, including Rasuwa. So far no changes in the objectives of primary and lower secondary education have been announced, though these are to be expected.

The new changes in the system of educational administration reflect an effort by government to increase the rôle of local participation. In this context the government is encouraging schools to become self-sufficient or even to convert into privately-financed boarding schools. For those schools which continue to be publicly-financed, the government will revert to the payment of annual grants-in-aid, as in pre-NESP days. Under this system the old School Management Committees are being revived. These will replace the existing School Co-Operation Committees and also the District Education Service Commissions, which have been abolished, since the School Management Committee's powers are being enlarged, in particular to allow them to recruit, promote, and dismiss teachers and other staff. They will also be responsible for paying teachers' salaries and other benefits. The greater financial autonomy given to the School Management Committees means that they will no longer have to deposit their income with the District Education Committee but instead will establish their own school funds and also their own budgets.

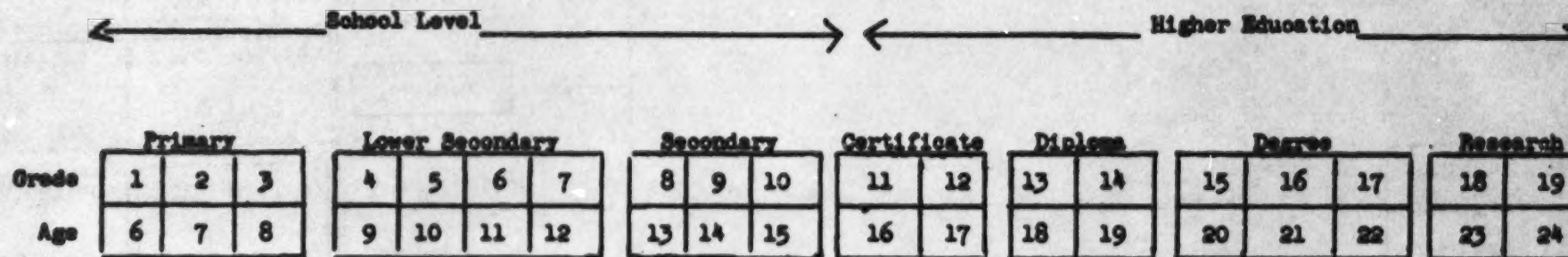
The general tenor of these measures is therefore to reduce the rôle of the district level in the running of the educational system, while giving greater responsibilities to the schools, and in particular those members of the community concerned in their operation.

It is not yet clear what will be the powers of the School Management Committees with regard to the day-to-day administration of schools, or as regards their supervision. These details have not yet been promulgated. Therefore at this time it is premature to attempt to comment on the probable effectiveness of the new arrangements, their viability, or their likely impact on the quality of education. The rôle of headmasters has not yet been delineated, nor the position of supervisors vis-à-vis the School Management Committees.

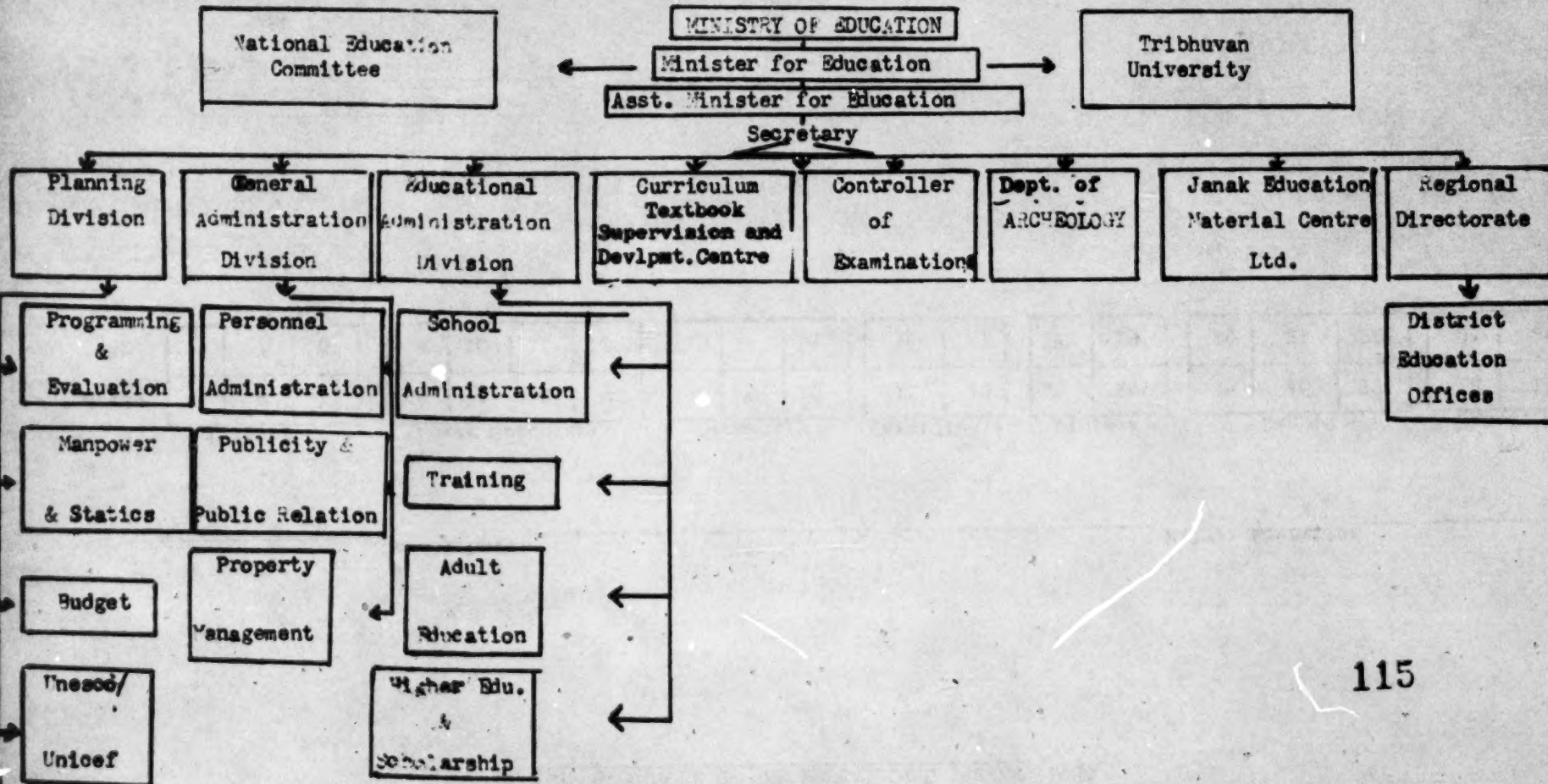
In view of the changes now in course of implementation, some of the recommendations in the body of the report may cease to be applicable.

ANNEXES

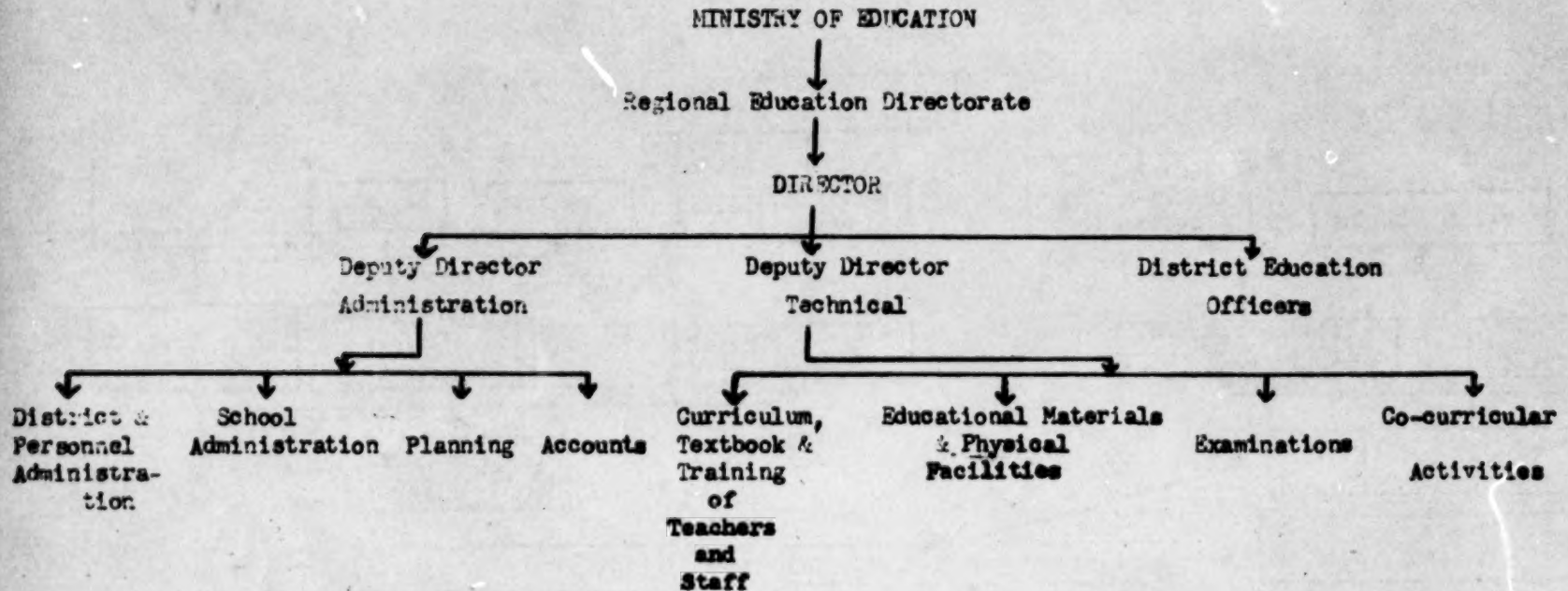
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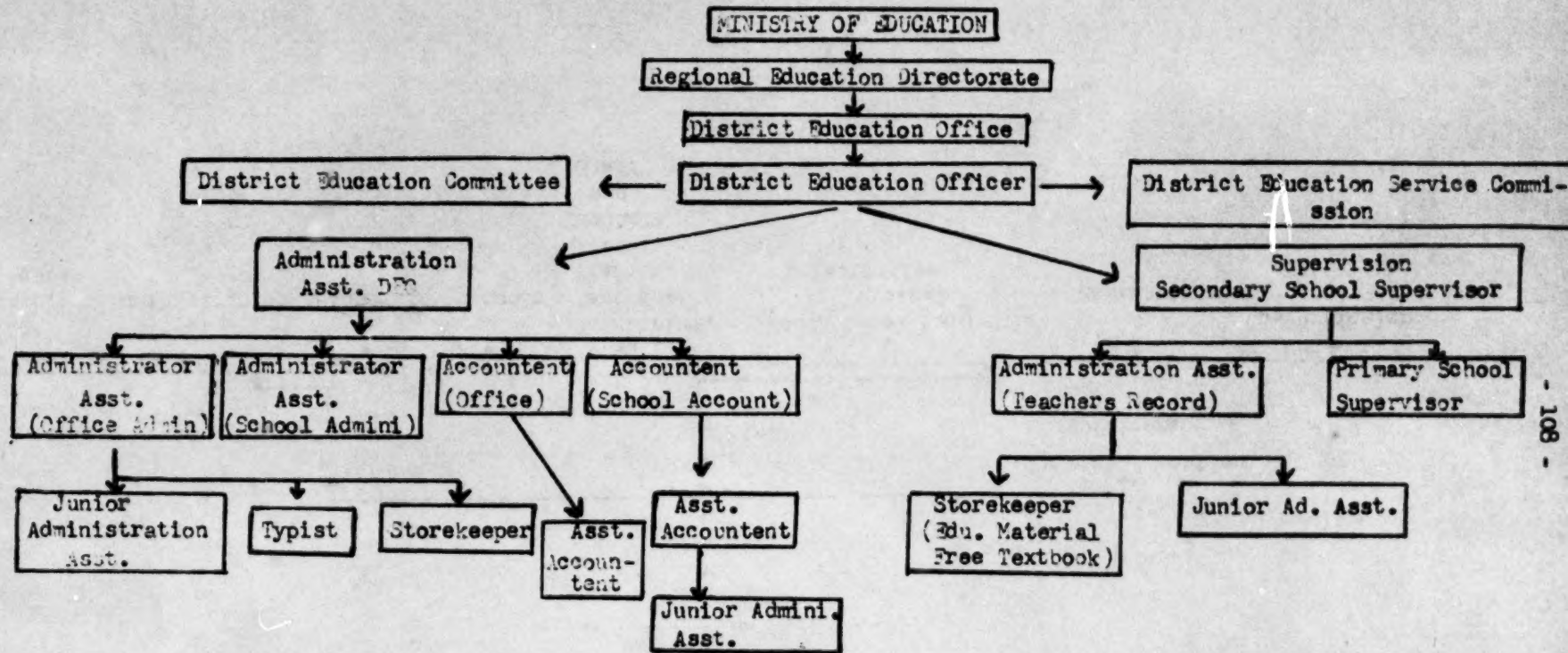
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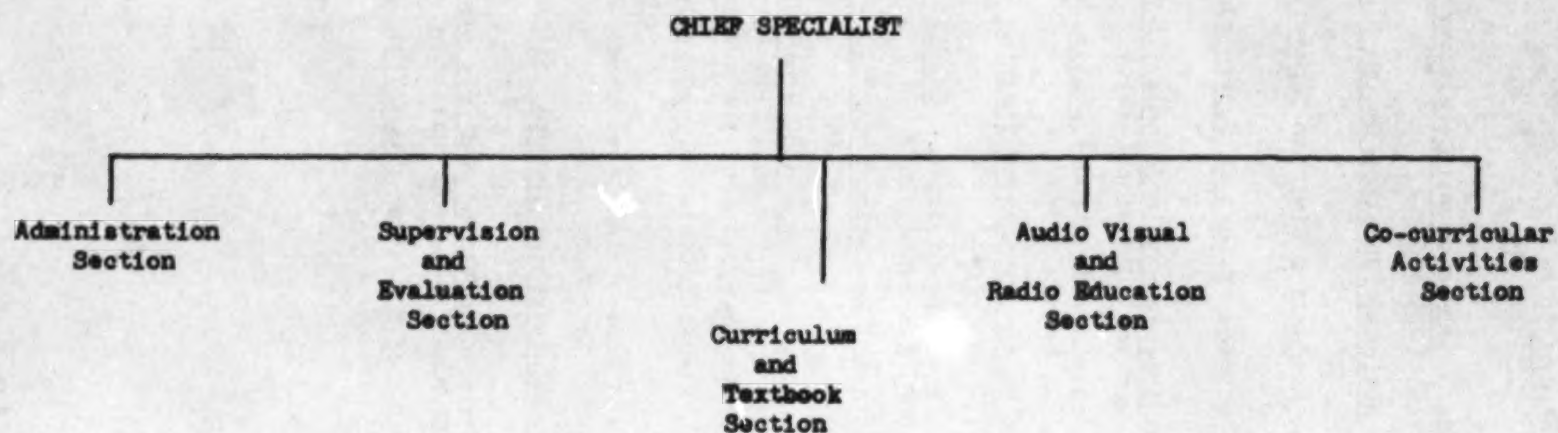
Organisation of Regional Education Directorates



ORGANIZATION OF DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICES



STRUCTURE OF THE CURRICULUM, TEXTBOOK AND SUPERVISION DEVELOPMENT CENTRE



Officers responsible
for each
subject in the
curriculum

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SUPERVISOR QUESTIONNAIRE

1. What is your place of origin?
2. How long have you been serving as a supervisor?
3. What level of education do you supervise?
4. In what subject do you specialize for inspection purposes?
5. Prior to becoming a supervisor what was your highest level of education?
6. What is your experience? (dates, functions, positions)
7. Have you had any special training as a supervisor, and if so what?
8. For how many schools are you responsible, and what are their locations (show on district map)?
9. How many of them were you able to visit in the last year, last 6 months, and the last 3 months?

Last year	Once	More than once
Last 6 months	Once	More than once
Last 3 months	Once	More than once
10. What were the reasons for not going to any schools which you did not visit?

Lack of time	Lack of transport	Other, specify
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11. How many days a month do you spend visiting schools, and how many at the DEO and during which months are your visits to schools?
12. When you are at the DEO, what is the nature of your activities?
13. Indicate, with the most important first, the activities you carry out when visiting a school, e.g., discussing instruction methods with teachers, classroom observation, consultation with principal, meeting with school co-operation committee, meeting with parents, checking school accounts, checking the operation of the school, assessing teacher performance, collecting statistics, providing information on new regulations or policies.
14. Are there any other tasks which you feel should be undertaken by supervisors, and which could make them more effective?
15. What do you feel is the best way for a supervisor to assist teachers?

- Individual discussions of problems
- Demonstration lesson
- Group meeting to study issues
- Clear instructions on what they should do?
- Carrying out short in-service training courses

16. If you have had supervisory training, how far do you feel it has helped you to become a more effective supervisor?

Very much

Slightly

Not at all

When did you have this training?

For how long was the training?

Where was the training?

17. In what particular respect do you feel training has improved your performance?

18. What additional training facilities do you feel are necessary for supervisors?

Initial training

Refresher workshops

Study tours

Others, specify

19. What topics would you suggest as most important for supervisory training?

20. What increased authority do you think the supervisor should have to improve his effectiveness, e.g., ability to penalize teachers?

SCHOOL CO-OPERATION COMMITTEE QUESTIONNAIRE

1. What are the main activities of the School Co-operation Committee?
2. Are there other aspects of the running of the school in which you feel the committee should be involved?
3. What are the professions and panchayat positions of the members of the committee? How many members are there?
4. How often did the committee meet in the last 12 months?
5. How many members attended the meetings?
6. What are the main topics of discussion?
7. Are you satisfied with the present performance of the school?
8. If not, what do you feel are the main shortcomings?
Deficiencies of buildings Shortages of books and teaching aids
Shortages of equipment Poor performance of teachers
Other (please specify)
9. What contributions has the committee made to the school during the past year?
Cash Labour Land
10. Could the school make a greater contribution to the life of the community, and if so in what ways?
Adult literacy classes
Health education
Using students in village projects
Others, specify
11. What other resources of the community could be put to use in the school?
Organization of school visit to places of cultural or vocational interest?
Involvement of local resource persons in instruction?
Use of farms for agricultural education?
Others, specify
12. What factors do you feel inhibit the school from using the community's services at present?
Lack of initiative among teachers?
Inadequacy or misdirection of funds?
Poor relation between school and community?
Others, specify

13. How often does the School Co-operation Committee meet the supervisor?
14. Is the Committee's relationship with the supervisor consultative or purely for information purposes, and what topics are usually discussed?
15. In what areas, if the teaching/learning process is to be improved, should the Committee's authority be increased?

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

1. How long have you been teaching in this school?
2. What grades do you teach?
3. For how long did you teach before coming to this school?
4. What is your highest level of education?
5. What teacher training did you have before starting teaching?
6. What in-service training have you received?
7. If you had in-service training, how long was it, where was it held, when was it held, what were the main subjects?
8. Do you have access to professional literature in the field of education and if so what?
What have you read?
9. Do you have access to the curriculum and teaching guides for the subjects you teach?

Curriculum	Yes	No
Teacher guide	Yes	No
10. What materials do you use for lesson preparation?

Textbooks	Previous notes	Others, specify
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11. What are the steps in lesson preparation?
12. Do you follow these steps?

Always	Sometimes	Never
Only when instructed to		
13. What difficulties do you face in lesson preparation?

Lack of time	Lack of materials	
Inadequate working facilities		Others, specify
14. What are the main difficulties you face in teaching?

Lack of interest by children	
Irregular attendance of children	
Lack of guidance from principal/supervisor	
Lack of teaching materials	
Lack of textbooks	Lack of interest by parents
Poor physical facilities	
Others, specify	

15. How have the supervisor's visits to the school helped you?
By suggestions on how to improve my teaching
By his demonstration lesson
By dealing with problems relating to my terms of employment
By providing additional teaching and reference materials
By improving the physical facilities of the school
Other, specify
16. If the supervisor's visits have not helped you, what are the reasons?
He has not visited the school since
He deals only with administrative matters
His visits are irregular
He talks only to the headmaster
He is unfamiliar with the subject I teach
He makes suggestions for my work which are impracticable
He is less qualified than I am
The school's limitations prevent the application of improved teaching methods
Other, specify
17. What help do you expect from the supervisor in improving your teaching practices?
Observation of my class to suggest improvements
Counselling on my teaching problems
Provision of teaching materials
Assistance in gaining access to teacher training?
18. How often do you visit the DEO, and why?
19. What contact do you have with other teachers and schools?
20. Do you listen to the school radio programmes?
21. Do you consider teaching aids important?

CLASSROOM OBSERVATION FORM

1. How many students are enrolled in the class?
2. How many were attending at the time of observation?
3. Was the classroom well maintained (painted, repaired, etc.)?
4. Was there sufficient space for the children present or for those enrolled, and for the teacher to move around the room?
5. Was it clean or dirty?
6. Did each child have somewhere to sit and desk space?
7. What was the condition of the furniture?
8. Did the teacher have:

blackboard

☐

chalk

☐

duster

☐

table and chair

☐

cupboard for storage

☐

lock for cupboard

☐

9. How many children had:

textbooks

exercise books

writing materials

10. Did the classroom contain visual aids or other teaching materials?
Specify

11. Subject being taught

Time observed.

From

To

12. Materials being used

Textbook

Chapter

Page

Other materials

13. Teaching methods used

Number of minutes

Teacher reading from text

Teacher lecturing

Teacher asking 'factual' questions

Teacher discussing with students

Teacher demonstrating, using equipment
or visual aids

U

Number of minutes

Students copying	-----
Students discussing with each other	-----
Students carrying out activities	-----
Practical work outside classroom	-----
Evaluation	-----
Other, specify	-----

14. Were the children paying attention?
Yes No
15. If no, was the teacher aware of this?
Yes No

H

HEADMASTER QUESTIONNAIRE

1. How long have you been a headmaster, is this your first appointment, and where do you come from?
2. What was your previous teaching experience before becoming a headmaster?
3. What teacher/training did you have?
4. Did you receive any special training to become a headmaster? If yes, specify
5. What further training have you received since appointment?
6. Do you teach a class yourself?
7. Do you give professional guidance to the teachers in your school?
Individual discussion
Demonstration lesson
Other, specify
8. If so, what percentage of your time is devoted to this task?
9. How many times per annum do you feel that you should receive a visit from a supervisor and how often does the supervisor come?
10. When the supervisor visits you, what are his main activities?
11. Which do you feel is the more important aspect of the supervisor's work, checking the administration of the school and seeing that the educational regulations are observed, or reviewing the performance of teachers and showing them how to improve their professional activity?
12. Do you see the supervisor as a channel to convey your problems or ideas to higher levels of the administration?
13. What more do you feel that the supervisor could usefully do for you and your teachers?
14. From where should supervisors be chosen, from experienced teachers, from headmasters, from the administration, or from another source? (specify the source)
15. How many days per month do you visit the DEO and when you visit what are the main reasons?
Collection of salaries
Clarification of instructions
Meetings
Short training

16. In the last year how many circular instructions did you receive from the DEO?
What percentage of these dealt with:
- | | |
|------------------------|------------------|
| Administrative matters | Teaching methods |
| Teaching materials | Other, specify |
| Curriculum | |
17. Do all the children have the required textbook?
If so, when did they arrive?
Which ones are not available?
18. Radius from which boys and girls come to the school
19. Are you satisfied with:
the physical facilities of the school,
the availability of textbooks,
the availability of other teaching aids
20. In what ways does the School Co-operation Committee help the school?
21. Do you feel that there are other rôles the Committee could usefully play, and if so, what are they?
22. Do the teachers attend school regularly?
23. If they do not appear, what do you do?
- | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| Assign another teacher | Give the class a special assignment |
| Take the class yourself | Dismiss the class |
24. Do teachers set homework and check it?
25. Do you observe classes regularly or occasionally?
Are you satisfied with the performance of teachers?
If no, why not?
26. Do teachers receive their salaries regularly?
27. Do you hold staff meetings, and if so how often?
28. What are the main topics at staff meetings?
- | | |
|--------------------|--------------------------------------|
| School budget | Teacher's problems |
| Student motivation | Improvement of teaching and learning |
| Teacher motivation | Supply of materials |
29. Do you submit confidential reports on the staff to the DEO as required by the 1971 Education Regulations? If yes, what action has the DEO taken

30. What has been the recent performance of the school in the following respects? ..

Positive

Negative

Rising	Total enrolments	Falling
Rising	Female enrolments	Falling
Better	Examination results	Worse
Falling	Drop-out rate	Rising
Falling	Repeater rate	Rising
Regular	Pupil attendance	Irregular
Improving	Teacher morale	Declining
Surplus	School budget	Deficit
Adequate	School buildings	Inadequate
Active	Local community	Inactive
Satisfactory	Student discipline	Unsatisfactory
More	Trained teachers	Fewer
Adequate	Teaching materials	Inadequate
Adequate	Textbooks	Inadequate
Adequate	Furniture	Inadequate